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RESEARCH AND THE UNIVERSITY¹

By MELVILLE H. HATCH

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The intention of the present essay is to draw attention to certain aspects of research and their relationship to the University. Research is the process whereby new information about the world is secured. Other types of information are passed from one person to another by the use of the spoken or written word, but in research the investigator is in touch with the ultimate sources of information themselves, and he builds up new knowledge by the laborious operation of the scientific method.

Research proceeds at a number of different levels. These must be distinguished if we would make clear just what we mean when the word is used.

There is, first, research at the personal private level. To show that I intend no disparagement of research at this most basic level, I exemplify it by reference to one of the greatest men of the western world, Leonardo da Vinci. The investigator is in full touch with the sources of information. He studies these in the light of adequate techniques, but his results remain his own or are communicated only to his immediate associates. There is lacking fully effective realization of the cooperative nature of the scientific and artistic enterprise with its obligation to render public the results of one's findings. Nevertheless, so far as the investigator's own attitudes are concerned, research at this private level gives most of the results that the other types of research confer. Many amateurs, some college professors, and workers engaged in secret investigations for employers carry on researches at this level to the continual benefit of themselves and their associates.

Secondly, there is research at the classical level. The work of Galileo, Newton, Lavoisier, and Darwin may be cited as examples

¹ An address given before the Research Society of the University of Washington on March 14, 1946.

of this type of investigation. The investigator works essentially to satisfy his own interests. On occasion he may take up practical problems of moment and he is always influenced to a marked extent by the intellectual milieu in which he finds himself. He sees to it, however, that the results of his work are made known publicly and he stands a chance of wielding a decisive influence in the history of human affairs. Some amateurs, many college and university professors, and some employees of government and industry carry on research at this classical level.

Thirdly, there is organized Research, usually carried on by groups, which we may, perhaps, begin to spell with a capital "R." Again I mean no slightest disparagement. The discovery of the nature of the world has proved to be a very complicated matter. One hundred and two hundred inch telescopes, cyclotrons, giant centrifuges, electron microscopes, laboratories full of experimental animals, museums full of specimens, vast libraries—none of these come except by the joint effort of many men. Extensive economic resources and many workers are necessary for effective progress in certain fields. But even where not necessary, the collaboration of several minds on a single project would seem to be more effective than one—a statement that can be maintained despite the outstanding results that single minds have obtained and continue to obtain in intellectual matters of all sorts. Organized collaborative Research of this type is characteristic of certain of the departments in many of the larger universities and of most Research institutes, whether they be of endowed, industrial or governmental sponsorship. Since such agencies, especially the industrial and governmental institutes, are frequently interested in practical results, the direction of such Research is likely to be along practical rather than theoretical lines. Important exceptions to this are the support given to nuclear physics before anyone suspected that usable atomic energy would be forthcoming and the organization and equipment available for modern astronomy, which continues to be largely theoretical.

Fourthly and finally, we can spell RESEARCH in capital letters and mean by it the vast coordinated programs of investigation and experimentation whereby the 1939-40 Blitzkrieg of the Germans and the Anglo-American development of the atomic bomb were

brought to fruition. In the Western World the stimulus of total war is apparently required to bring forth RESEARCH on this scale, but there is evidence that it is part of the program of totalitarian Russia to call into play such methods along various segments of the scientific front where practical results seem likely.

Research, then, as I conceive it, extends from the personal and classical levels of individual workers to the group research of the individual laboratory or institute and the gigantic organization that produced the atomic bomb. On its qualitative side, moreover, I insist on a very broad meaning of the term. The world, as has just been noted, is a complicated affair. The approach of the novelist, the poet, or the painter is as revealing of its nature as is that of the scientist or social scientist; and the technician whose works are set forth in a new mechanism or procedure has approached reality at least as effectively as one whose results are confined to the printed page. All levels and types of research must be kept within our purview if we would appreciate its full nature and import.

The importance of research partakes of somewhat the same complexity as does its nature.

Its first import is the release that it gives the human spirit in its strange journey between the cradle and the grave. Man in the development of his psychic powers has passed beyond his simple biological origins to the discovery of truth and beauty, and research is the intellectual aspect of this quest. Some of our socialist friends, in these later days, have sought to cast doubt on the authenticity of this aspect of scientific and artistic activity. Man does nothing, they say, without complete economic motivation. The contrary protestations of the workers themselves mean little to those who see in human affairs only an infinite regress of social service. Man has no meaning in himself, but only as he helps others to help others to help others, to infinity. Such doctrine is the great heresy of the modern age. It leads, however, to—

The second great importance of research—the increased control that it gives man over nature. Properly subordinated to man's basic spiritual needs, this is an aspect of research of great importance. Nothing less than the freeing of man from drudgery and from toil and his release for the enjoyment of the spiritual things in

human life appear to be within his grasp if he will but apply the results that research makes available to him.

The third great importance of research is in teaching. Teaching is the passing on of information about the structure of collective human experience from one individual to another. It is one of the highly unique characteristics of humanity. Many animals learn, but man is almost the only creature that teaches. Research is important in teaching because it concerns itself with the ultimate processes whereby collective human experience is built up. Teaching, in consequence, cannot be carried on with maximum efficiency by one to whom the things taught have simply been received from some previous authority. He may know by report of the methods whereby the truths which he is teaching were originally discovered, but without personal experience with these methods the content of his teaching almost inevitably becomes an unquestioned, falsely clearcut, dogmatic body of doctrine. Continual contact with the ultimate sources of information, on the other hand, tends to keep the teacher in a critical frame of mind. It makes him treat the pronouncements of his predecessors with a degree of tentativeness that holds in abeyance the drift towards scholasticism to which all teaching is prone.

Moreover, the teacher-researcher is in a position to wield a most desirable type of influence on his student. The student, seeing his teacher in touch with ultimate sources of information, is himself led to a critical appraisal of the subject, and perhaps even to research itself in a way that would be less likely without an example before him.

II

Having now inquired briefly into the nature and importance of research, I propose to look into the nature of the University as a preparation for an exposition of the place that research occupies in the University's life.

The American university is a unique development in educational history. Partaking, as it does, of the particular circumstances involved in the development of our native institutions, it has come to

possess many of the characteristics of the polyglot origin of American civilization. Compounded of the New England college, of the technical school, and of the German university, with a leavening from the English universities thrown in, it cannot be appreciated exclusively in terms of values received from these older institutions.

First and foremost in the tradition of the American university is the New England college. In fact it may perhaps be looked upon as a New England college to which has been added one by one appurtenances more or less foreign to its original nature, with the result that there is little wonder that it exhibits growing pains and maladjustments of various sorts.

The New England college was founded by the Protestant farmers and sailors and traders of Colonial America because they desired to perpetuate in the New World the Christian cultural traditions that they brought with them from the Old. An educated clergy was one of the prime spiritual requirements of the colonists, and the colleges were founded by an impoverished people to supply their need. Elaborate lecture halls and residences were neither envisaged nor necessary for the ancient languages and history, mathematics, rhetoric, and theology that were all that constituted the American curriculum of higher education for nearly the first two centuries of its existence. There was nothing about the situation that contributed in any way to its amelioration. A pioneer community, far from the centers of European civilization, the American college received such light as it did from the relatively backward English institutions. Nor did its theological overtones conduce to initiative and independence of thought or teaching. The American college arose as a strongly scholastic institution whose object was to hand on a received tradition as intact as possible. Several factors contributed to its eventual modification.

First, American democratic ideals made it impossible that higher education be confined to the few for whom the College was designed. In consequence the many came to insist on a course of study that should be as adapted to them as the traditional curriculum was suited to the prospective clergyman and the "Christian Gentleman." Thus arose the technical school and, since a technical school is concerned with practical results rather than with received

tradition, its emphasis was on the new rather than the old even though on an applied rather than a theoretical level.

Secondly, American higher education finally discovered the continental mainsprings of the culture of which it was a peripheral part. Or perhaps it may have been that America was thus late in attaining an economic status capable of maintaining the elaborate university establishments that Europe had boasted of since the end of the Middle Ages. At any rate, whatever the cause, the latter third of the nineteenth century witnessed large numbers of Americans journeying to Europe for graduate study. Here, with a true perception of how the land lay, they largely by-passed England and France for the universities of Germany. These remarkable institutions, which were then entering upon the heyday of their career, presented about as much contrast to the American college as one type of educational institution can offer to another. The Americans found themselves in the presence of guilds of actively creative scholars to whom the classroom was frequently little more than an annoying interlude. They found the musty textbook of the college recitation cast to one side. Nothing less than the living word of the professor was sufficiently sensitive and flexible to keep abreast of a rapidly expanding scholarship. The professors wrote their own textbooks only to find that before the ink was dry they must again revise their words. And in seminar and laboratory the student was introduced himself to the very processes involved in the production of this remarkable new knowledge. There is little wonder that many of these men returned to America with the firm resolve to transplant a little bit of Germany to their native land.

But the resolve was frequently superior to the accomplishment. Away from the immediate source of inspiration and learning, lectures by a world-authority keeping his words constantly in tune with the latest developments sometimes became lectures read out of a years-old lecture note-book. And laboratory experiments that were new and interesting when first performed tended to become the deadliest of recipe-following.

The American university was the result: New England college and finishing school at the bottom, technical school off over at the side, German university at the top. And latterly, in some schools,

elements of the tutorial system from the English universities have been added as a sort of leavening. Strange bed-fellows these, indeed! There is little wonder that creaks and cracks have developed in various parts of the university's structure, that men utterly devoted to research and its importance have come to labor side by side with men to whom such activity is a frivolous and meaningless waste of time.

III

If we inquire now as to the relation between the University and research, the answer is not difficult. The basic objectives of research and of the University are the same: on the one hand, to enable men to realize the intrinsic values of truth and beauty; on the other, to give men the tools whereby they may lead the sort of lives in which truth and beauty are possible. If the approach to these basic objectives by the University is to be other than a traditional one, research must be involved at every step of the way.

In addition to these there is a further powerful motive the logical consequences of which would insist on research not only throughout the University but wherever teaching is carried on. I refer to the observation made above that knowledge can be transferred in the most adequate manner only by one who has himself had personal experience in the way that knowledge is produced.

In this connection the type of research done at the University is of interest. Many persons think of such research as primarily involving large cooperative projects usually conducted in the hope of making discoveries of direct practical value to the community. Such Research is of the type that it has been suggested should be spelled with a capital "R." Its promotion is one of the activities and a very proper activity of the University; but it is in important measure to fail to understand the nature of University research to equate Research of this type with University research as a whole. University research characteristically is the work of inquiring minds carrying out long-time individual projects. In fact the individual might play such a small part in a complexly organized Research project that he would be unable to appreciate the overall trial and error planning and hypothesizing and testing that re-

present the process of knowledge-acquisition. And it is this being in touch with the ultimate sources of information that is of prime importance to the teacher.

Immediately it is the University worker's personal interests that determine his selection of research projects, but these operate in a complex setting, only one factor of which is that only men with certain interests obtain University positions. Nobody expects the University to have professorships in astrology, in alchemy, in chess, or in philately! But within its fields, the University should maintain as great diversity of viewpoint as possible and encourage its members to explore freely. In this way it serves to produce an important reservoir of ideas, some of which may never be heard from again but others of which may have important consequences. Thus nearly all the basic discoveries, the development of which led to the discovery of the utilization of atomic energy, were the results of individual university research. The privilege of the professor, within wide limits, of carrying on his research along any line that appeals to him is one of the most precious and important aspects of academic freedom. A University president, a dean, or a department head can no more direct one of his subordinates to shift his research in any given direction than he can deny him the right to publish what he has discovered or to say what he thinks in the field of his competence in his classroom.

Coordinated and applied research is a function of the University as well as individual research. Frequently members of the University can be found who will be willing to turn their studies to projects of this sort—the appeal of practical work remains strong in many of even the most academically minded!—but no coercion is permissible, and, if present University members cannot be found for the particular project in prospect, additional personnel must be employed for the purpose.

There are still other misconceptions connected with research, especially in relation to teaching, that may be considered.

First, teaching, much of it good teaching, is done in the absence of experience with research on the part of the teacher. A number of factors are involved in good teaching, of which research experience is only one. Furthermore, research by itself does not insure good teaching—many research men are poor teachers. Many

non-research men are better teachers than many research men. None of these observations mitigates against the proposition that, other things being equal, the most effective teaching is done by those in personal contact with the ultimate sources of information.

Secondly, the idea is frequently expressed that somehow a teacher's research has failed in its import if it does not show patently in the subject matter of his teaching. Since teaching is concerned preponderantly with broad basic general concepts, it is argued that the research must be similarly oriented. Investigation of immediately unimportant detail is said to betray a type of mind that is obviously unsuited for any but the most specialized teaching. Every professor of Roman history must be investigating the causes of the Roman decline. Every physicist must study atomic energy. Every biologist must be trying to discover the origin of life or the cause of cancer. Such notions are false—even from the restricted viewpoint of the effect of the teacher's research on his teaching entirely apart from its other values. The principles of widest application are themselves compounded of these same despised details; the one leads directly to the other. Moreover, the value of research in teaching consists in the critical attitude it engenders in respect to verbalized formulations of all sorts. It keeps one reading the journals and other sources of new information and tends to prevent that drift towards scholasticism that has been mentioned.

Thirdly, it is sometimes suggested that there are fields in which all the facts are in and research is no longer possible. This is true only if certain elementary subjects are defined in very restricted terms. Gross human anatomy sufficiently narrowly delimited may be a nearly exhausted science, but only if one views it in isolation from its historical development or from the microscopic, developmental, physiological, and general vertebrate anatomy to which it is intimately related. Elementary language can appear similarly closed only if isolated from comparative linguistics on the one hand or from the critique and elucidation of the literature of which it is the vehicle on the other. Even physical education would become a research field of moment if approached from the viewpoint of the basic physiological and psychological factors involved. It should be the function of the University curriculum in every field to put

the student in vital contact with the sources of information in that field.

Fourthly, it is upon occasion argued that the teacher can fulfill his obligation to research by research on methods of teaching and presentation, including textbook writing. Nothing could be more fallacious. The teacher is a craftsman. He owes it to his craft to master it as well as may be possible and to make such improvements in it as he can contrive. Nothing that is said about the importance of research condones in the least inadequate teaching. The successful teacher may well have to do some research in teaching to make him an adequate teacher. The present point is that research in teaching methods can never be a substitute for research in subject matter. The only teacher whose research can be exclusively on teaching methods is the professor of education, and his research must concern the methods he is teaching about and not those he is employing in teaching the prospective teachers! It cannot be too frequently repeated that subject matter can be most effectively taught only by one who is in touch with the ultimate sources of information of that which he is teaching. Moreover, there is a difference between simply learning how to do something oneself and teaching someone else how to do it. In teaching, the process of verbalization has intervened. A person can be a good teacher without knowing exactly why, which is to say without reducing his procedure to verbalized formulas, but one can never be a good teacher without having verbalized the subject matter of his teaching.

Fifthly, the researcher must be aware of the definite obligations he assumes when he becomes a part of the University. In his private laboratory or in the laboratory of industry or government the major share of the energies of the research man are directed to the solution of specific problems. Even here, in the study of individual, highly specialized problems, the researcher frequently finds that he must wander far afield to obtain the facts and principles necessary for the successful prosecution of his research. But the individual researches are the things to which other considerations are subordinated.

In the University the researcher can no longer so restrict himself. He is no less interested than the private or industrial or governmental researcher in the solution of individual problems—no re-

search that is not concerned with this is worth its salt! In addition, however, as a member of the University the researcher has an obligation to his entire cultural tradition, the interpretation of which is the University's prime function. In his task of exposition, he must continually bridge the gap between the general and the particular. He must be a researcher to do this, because only a researcher is likely to have a sufficient appreciation of the particular. But at the same time that he is a researcher, he must be a generalizer and an integrator—otherwise the curriculum runs the danger of falling apart into unrelated segments. Moreover, there is in reality no slightest incongruity between the most highly particularized detail and the most broadly generalized principle.

Even if the researcher finds himself a bit uneasy at being on unfamiliar ground, he owes it to himself and his institution to do what he can in this connection. Generalization is a part of the University's function. If the researcher does not rise to the task, he is likely to find it being performed by others less adequate even though more glib than himself. For words flow freely where facts are wanting, and much detail conduces to cautiousness. The halting generalizations of the particularizer are apt to be more important than the suave language of the less experienced.

At this point a warning analogous to that just given the researcher may be addressed to the administrator. Not too frequently does the administrator find combined in one person the functions of both particularizer and generalizer. For such dual personalities must the University continually be searching, and its curriculum must be so oriented that such persons will be easier to come by in the future than in the past. However, where such men cannot be found and the choice must be between the particularizer and the generalizer, I suggest that preference be given to the particularizer.

The old proverb ran: "Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves." I suggest analogously: Take care of the facts and the principles will take care of themselves! Moreover, I say this because of no lack of solicitude for the principles, but because of conviction that concern for principles alone is like building a house on a foundation of sand and tends to result in barren scholasticism. Sufficiently penetrating pondering of the facts leads to the only sort of generalization that is worth while.

IV

My final inquiry is as to what the University must do if the relationship between the University and research is to be properly realized. I have taken the unequivocal position that all teaching everywhere must be accompanied by research in connection with the subject matter of the teaching. Under the incubus of the New England College, it is impracticable to attack along the entire front at once. At the beginning at least, we must center our forces at strategically advantageous points.

The spearhead of the research forces in the University is the Graduate School with the Dean of the Graduate School at their head. Here the research tradition is best established, and here it can be strengthened with least likelihood of opposition. The doctor's degree is nearly universally recognized as a research degree, and the master's degree is sometimes so recognized. In accordance with his key position as it affects research at the University of Washington, the Dean of the Graduate School is chairman of the committee that controls the research publications of the University; he maintains and publishes periodic bibliographies of faculty publications, and he has the review of all promotions throughout the institution.

As a first step in the promotion of research at the University, I suggest that no course be given graduate credit unless it is taught by an active researcher. Where such courses are now being taught by non-research personnel, they may have to be let alone, but no permanent change should be allowed in personnel connected with such courses that does not conform to the policy set forth above. One of my colleagues would go even farther and suggest that no course should be given graduate credit unless the instructor is doing research in the particular field of the course itself, and this may well represent a policy eventually to be adopted.

Secondly, I suggest that the line be firmly held as regards the research nature of the doctor's thesis. Furthermore, I suggest that the research character of the work for the master's degree be strengthened. Frequently the holders of such degrees go out into our schools and colleges. The more thorough and adequate their graduate work has been, the more likely it will be to leaven the

subsequent teaching of the candidates or even to encourage them to continue with original work.

Outside the graduate school the promotion of research is likely to meet with less enthusiasm, but there is every reason to plan that it eventually pervade the entire structure of the college and the professional schools. First, in this connection, I should like to suggest that no person be appointed a department head who does not have behind him ten years of active research experience and is not currently active in research work. The same requirement might well hold for the appointment of full professors, and, at the very minimum, appointments of full and associate professors should involve five years of research activity. Even appointments of assistant professors should not be made to men who have not started on a career of research. Nowhere would such a program condone inept or inefficient teaching. It would merely insist that in addition to teaching, acquaintance with the ultimate sources of information be maintained. Moreover, adequate standards of "research activity" would have to be established and, while they would usually involve publication of original work, they could be administered in such a way as to recognize the essence of original work and not exclusively its more superficial manifestations. Artistic activity and involvement in complicated long-time projects could be recognized and still exclude non-significant or ineffectual puttering.

Such a program, if consistently carried out, could, without displacing a single present member of the staff, completely alter the tone of the University within a period of ten or twenty years. It would eventually come about that persons who did not find congenial a life of teaching *and* research would seek other lines of endeavor.

I believe that the basic factor in the promotion of research at the University is an adequate appointment and promotion policy. Obviously, however, research personnel must be retained and encouraged once it is found. Salaries comparable to what such persons can receive elsewhere must be paid. They must have adequate library and laboratory facilities. Teaching loads must be watched, as much from a qualitative as from a quantitative point of view. Moreover, the teacher-researcher's superiors must protect him from immoderate demands for public service and general

University work. One advanced course per term—or perhaps two where no elementary teaching is simultaneously involved—would perhaps be the ideal, which course or courses the instructor could perfect year by year and still leave him time and energy for his research and his general University obligations.

Once the University has put its own house in order, it would be possible for it to look at other portions of the educational system. The University has a powerful weapon in its system of accrediting students from other institutions. This could be used to put pressure on the colleges and junior colleges either to change their standards or to accept status on a permanently different level of educational effectiveness. Adequate education is an expensive affair and institutions operating on an inadequate financial basis cannot expect parity with others more soundly established. And one of the essential bases of educational adequacy is the continuing experience of the faculty with the ultimate sources of information.

Finally, what effect can the University have on teachers in the lower schools? I do not anticipate that its influence can be very great, but such as it is it can be in the right direction. The training of our teachers should be in the hands of men who have earnestly forsworn the heresy that technique alone makes a successful teacher. Without in the least slackening emphasis on the importance of method, the prospective teacher must be indoctrinated with a similar respect for subject matter. Through continuing emphasis on the research nature of the master's thesis, and through extending to teachers in the summer the facilities of the University for continuing their favorite studies at a pace that will not deprive the summer entirely of its necessary recreational value, the University may well help to keep the teacher's contact with his subject matter from becoming entirely devitalized. But I am not sanguine that more than a very little can be hoped for here.

It would be foolish to shut one's eyes to the circumstance that criticism of such a program will come from numerous members of the University community. There will be those who will criticize the research man as so absorbed in his own studies that he has no interest in anything else. Some research men are so characterized. They are not the ones we nominate for positions in the University.

There will be those, as we have indicated, who feel that the in-

terest in detail of many researchers mitigates against their handling the broader problems of teaching. If such there really are, they again are not the ones for positions in the University. But such a criticism would seem to flow in important measure from a failure on the part of the critic to appreciate the relationship between the general and the particular and the function of research in the teaching process.

There will be those who believe that teaching can occur in the absence of research. It has so occurred in the past. Why not in the future? The magnetic personality will be cited who has influenced students far and near. We at once disclaim any intent to deprive the University of any magnetic personalities or of any great teachers it can obtain, but we do insist that such types with research interests will inevitably do a better type of teaching than otherwise. The University needs as many great teachers as it can find, but the greatest teaching does not occur except in the light of experience with the ultimate sources of information.

In reality, most of the opposition for whatever reason will come from those who have never been or no longer are interested in original work. Actually our program does envisage the eventual exclusion of persons of this type from the University. It does not, however, plan the least infringement of the tenure of any such persons already in the University. Human beings being such as they are, however, the opposition of such persons can be counted on as long as there are any of them left on our faculties.

In conclusion, it may be stressed again, the function of the University is such that the continuing participation of its members in research is an integral part of its life. Both as a source of new knowledge and as the only adequate basis for handing on old knowledge research is essential to the University's activity.

THE VALUE OF A PSYCHIATRIC CONSULTANT TO A UNIVERSITY STUDENT HEALTH SERVICE

By HARRIOT HUNTER and MARY LINDA GORTON
University of Colorado

In December, 1944, after several requests by Dr. L. W. Holden, Director, Student Health Service, University of Colorado, and at the suggestion of the Psychiatric Liaison Department of the Colorado University Hospitals, a service was inaugurated whereby a psychiatric consultant was made available to the Health Service once a week to see students with emotional and personality problems. With the exception of several weeks during vacation, the service was continued regularly for one year. This paper is a report on the 94 students seen by us during that period, with the main purpose of emphasizing the need for such a service in all university or college health departments.

Statistical Survey

TABLE I

	Male	Female
Number	41	53
Per cent	43.6	56.4

Out of a total of 94 cases seen, there were 53 females, or 56.4%, as is seen in Table I. There is thus an apparent slight predominance of females, which seems further emphasized by the fact that during this period the number of enrolled males was 4306 as compared with 4102 females. However, the average number of females visiting the Health Clinic for general complaints runs usually about twice that of males who make visits to the clinic, so therefore there is actually not as great a number of females as would be expected.

TABLE 2

Age	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25 plus
Number	1	5	17	17	13	9	6	9	2	14

With the exception of one teacher of 57 years, the average age of the students seen was 21.7 years. This is about the usual college age, but when it is noted below that the majority of students seen were in the freshman class, this figure seems a little high. We believe this is accounted for by the fact that there were a number of veterans seen who were a good deal older than the average college student, and most of them were in the freshman class; this brought the average up slightly. It is noted that the largest number in any age group fell in the two groups of 18 and 19 years. This is probably due to the fact that more of the general college population are in these particular years, but it is also true that these are the ages where most of the present types of problems exist.

TABLE 3

	Veterans	Army	Navy
Number	34	17	17
Per cent	36.1	50	50

There was a total of 34 veterans in the group, or a percentage of 36.1%. The number of veterans enrolled on the campus during that period was 2366, or a percentage of 28.1% of the total enrollment, so it seems possible that as a group the veterans may have needed more help than the non-veterans. However, we do not believe that the problems of the veteran are any more severe or unusual than the average problems presented by the group as a whole. It is also possible that the veterans as a group are more aware of their need for help and more amenable to psychiatric therapy because of their experience in the armed services.

TABLE 4

	Freshman	Sophomore	Junior	Senior	Graduate	Teachers
Number	38	21	18	8	8	1
Per cent	40.4	22.3	19.3	8.5	8.5	1.0

Of the total number of individuals interviewed, 40.4% were in the freshman class. This is an important fact from an educational standpoint, and entirely understandable. We believe that the type of emotional and personal problems presented by these students is usually much more pressing at the beginning of the college career. It is at this time that the individual is bewildered, confused, and overwhelmed by the new types of experiences he is meeting, the responsibilities he is faced with, and the sudden emancipation he must go through to become an independent, self-reliant person. He is seeking adult advice and guidance at this time, and it should be readily available to him. It is in this period that so many problems can be solved which often become more serious and intractable later on. It is also true that students who have personality problems are more apt to drop out of school as time goes on, especially if the problem originates from a personality disturbance that is not properly cared for, and the student drops out of school as a "psychiatric casualty."

TABLE 5

Referrals

	Student Health Physicians	Self	Teachers	Speech Dept.	Other Students	Psychology Dept.
Number	71	11	3	5	3	1
Per cent	75.4	11.9	3.2	5.3	3.2	1.0

This table reveals some interesting data. The majority of referrals came naturally from the Student Health Service and were referred by the two resident physicians on the staff, both of whom were familiar with psychosomatic conditions and student emotional problems. However, once the service was established a number of students came in voluntarily to seek help. Some of these had been to a Mental Hygiene lecture and wished to ask questions concerning some aspect of the lecture; still others had heard about the new service around the campus and sought help on purely personal problems which were not necessarily of a medical nature and would not have otherwise brought them into the Health Service. Several students were sent in by their roommates

or friends. It is rather surprising that more students were not referred from the psychology department where many students ordinarily take problems of this sort.

TABLE 6
Disposition

	Advised	Accepted for Treatment	Referred to Other Psychiatrists
Number	46	43	5
Per cent	49.0	45.7	5.3

It may be noted that approximately 50% of the students were simply advised either in one or two interviews. Only 45% were accepted for treatment and only 25 or 26.6% of the total number were brought back for more than three interviews. This was obviously because of lack of personnel and time. Many more students could have been seen over a longer period of time if time had been available. Fortunately, most of the problems were of the type that lend themselves beautifully to short-term psychotherapy. Of the 5 students referred to another psychiatrist, two were advised to drop out of school and take a quarter or more off; the other three were going home on vacation and were advised to seek treatment there.

TABLE 7
Diagnostic Breakdown

Emotional immaturity.....	14
Anxiety tension state.....	12
Other psychoneuroses.....	13
Psychosomatic cases.....	8
Simple personality problems.....	9
Schizoid personality.....	12
Schizophrenia.....	7
Constitutional psychopathic personality.....	9
Stutterers.....	5
Hysterical personality.....	3
Depression.....	3
Mentally retarded.....	1
Congenital spastic.....	1
Combat fatigue.....	1
Post-traumatic.....	1
Psychomotor.....	1

Upon referring to the diagnostic table, it may be noted that the majority of cases fell into rather mild diagnostic categories. Actually only 3.2% of the total cases were serious enough to be admitted. This is lower than the usual percentage of cases seen in a hospital out-patient department who need to be hospitalized. The percentage of serious illnesses or untreatable personality disorders was low, about 17%. It should also be noted that the total number of diagnoses does not correspond to the total number of cases since occasionally a supplementary diagnosis was made in the same case, *i. e.*, "Emotional Immaturity, Psychosomatic Illness."

In addition to the interviews, two other diagnostic procedures were included. Three electro-encephalograms were done on three male patients with suspicious histories. Twenty-six Rorschach examinations were given to selected cases by our psychiatric social workers who accompanied us.

Typical Case Records

In general the cases fell into two large groups: those accepted for treatment and those not treated. This division is entirely artificial and was brought about by the exigencies of the situation. There were many more referrals than could be handled by one consultant and, in order to facilitate treatment of those who stood the best chance of benefiting from treatment, certain cases were immediately advised or diagnosed and not seen again. Thus Group I contains certain subgroups:

- Group I. Cases not accepted for treatment: 51 (54.2+%)
- A. Cases which were diagnosed as serious mental illness and hospitalized: 3 (3.2%)
 - B. Cases which were diagnosed and not treated: 13 (13.8%)
 - Constitutional Psychopathy: 9 (9.5%)
 - Schizophrenia: 3 (3.2%)
 - Mental Deficiency: 1 (1%)
 - C. Cases of simple personal or situational problems which could be advised in one or two interviews: 19 (20.2%)
 - D. Cases of students who were not returning to school, some of whom were referred to a psychiatrist at home (5): 13 (13.8%)

- E. Cases of students who broke appointments and did not return for treatment: 3 (3.2%)

Group II. Contains students who were accepted for treatment: 43 (45.7%)

- A. Students with emotional problems, who were seen and treated in 2 or 3 interviews and who benefited from therapy: 18 (19.2%)
- B. Students who were given a longer period of treatment, who had over 3 interviews: 25 (26.6%). Of these only three showed no improvement after therapy.

Typical of these groups of cases are the following brief summaries:

GROUP I. NON-TREATED

A. Serious mental illness:

R. P.: A 21-year-old boy from a small town in Colorado was seen at the Health Service as an emergency because of his distraught manner and the incoherency of his speech. He came in reporting that he had been upset in his psychology class because he believed the teacher was lecturing about him; furthermore, he had several good friends on the campus who had recently begun to "psychoanalyze" him. He was extremely confused and blocked often during the interview; he hinted at thoughts of suicide and was self-reproachful about his poor grades. The referring physician reported that he had been talking incoherently to various people on the campus about his "sins." He was diagnosed as having an acute schizophrenic reaction with many paranoid and depressive ideas. Immediate hospitalization at the Colorado Psychopathic Hospital was recommended. He remained there four months and received insulin and electric shock therapy. He was discharged much improved. The immediate etiological factors were thought to be: apparent break in close family ties, worry over failure to make the grade after induction into the Army, guilt over recent departure from rather moralistic upbringing, and consistent failure to make good grades.

B. Diagnosed as untreatable chronic personality disturbance:

L. W.: This 22-year-old Army veteran was also seen as an emergency in the Denver office, where he came with his wife. The immediate complaint was brought to the attention of the Health

Service by the wife because of the student's repeated week-end drinking bouts, his recently developed indifference to her, and his failure to study. He had a long history of failure to adjust with many incidents involving asocial behavior and an N-P discharge from the Army. He admitted to his wife (a well-adjusted, fairly successful, although somewhat naïve business woman) that he had married her only to use her to further his own ends. This case seemed to be an all-too-obvious one of Constitutional Psychopathy. The wife was advised and the case dismissed.

C. Cases of simple personal or situational problems:

M. D.: This 21-year-old girl came in complaining of headaches and depressed spells. These symptoms originated out of a period of worry for over a year concerning her college work. Talented in music and having been fairly successful in that field in a small town, she found that at college her ambitions and her idea of her own success far outstripped her actual accomplishments in the music school where competition was greater, and she began to be depressed over her work. In addition to this she had been exposed to more liberal ideas about religion at college which conflicted with her strict, sheltered upbringing. She had a very good understanding of her problems and, after some simple explanation was given to her concerning her physical symptoms and a friendly adult ear was lent to her conflicting religious ideas, she was much relieved and was able to work out her own problems from then on.

D. Cases who were not returning to school:

V. E.: This girl was an immature 18-year-old who was seen as an emergency because of a suicidal attempt on the campus. (Three of the total number of cases had either attempted or threatened suicide.) This particular student was a typical college girl, who, because of a basically immature personality, a rather tragic family background, and a series of unfortunate events concerning her on the campus, had decided on the melodramatic course of drinking a bottle of iodine. The girl was socially attractive and popular on the campus, but had many underlying conflicts in her personality and background. Her mother, who was financially as well as emotionally insecure, had been more or less indifferent to the patient's upbringing and represented in her daughter's mind a particularly obnoxious character, reminding her constantly of all the evils of poverty, alcohol, and sex. When she reached college, this girl began to be awakened to much more meaningful ideas and philoso-

phies by her contacts on the campus, and realized that her old social set was shallow and narrow-minded. When she "broke" with them, they began some unfounded gossip about her which precipitated her already well-established feelings of guilt and depression. After two lengthy interviews, she was persuaded to go through with her exams and advised to make summer plans to visit a new college friend in another state. She was advised to consult a psychiatrist in that district during the vacation.

GROUP II. CASES ACCEPTED FOR TREATMENT

A. *"Short-term" treatment of emotional problems:*

There is actually very little difference between this group and Group C above except for the fact that the problems above were usually in the nature of an immediate situation which could be straightened out by guidance and advice from an experienced counsellor, whereas those of this group were mild personality problems which actually needed treatment and benefited from interviews which were limited because of lack of time and personnel.

J. H.: A 20-year-old Freshman student was seen because of complaints of nervousness, poor sleep, headaches, and inability to concentrate. She was depressed and bothered with feelings of uselessness and hopelessness about her college work and her future life. All of these symptoms developed in direct relation to the recent death of her Army husband with whom she was very much in love. She had heard of his death during the summer while she was working. When she decided to leave her job, her friends in the office persuaded her to begin college in the fall. She did so primarily because she and her husband had planned to go together, but she was without a very good idea as to what she planned to do in the future or what kind of degree she wanted. She was also beginning to date again, and was probably having guilt feelings in relation to the development of an interest in one of her escorts which she felt was disloyal to her husband. She was advised during two short interviews which resulted in tremendous improvement and much gratitude and relief. She was told to work out her plans for four years of college only if she could be sure of her reasons for wanting a degree, to choose her subjects accordingly, and by all means to try to live a normal campus life. She was gently advised that dating and interest in the opposite sex was entirely normal and was encouraged not to cut herself off from it. Her feelings of guilt were explained to her simply, and her physical symptoms were interpreted as a result of anxiety and tension.

This case is typical of the group which only needed superficial guidance and simple advice and never failed to benefit markedly from one or two interviews.

B. "Long-term" treatment:

This group contained the largest variety of diagnostic headings. As can be seen from the statistical table, the majority fell into the four classes: Emotional immaturity, schizoid personality, anxiety tension state, and other types of psychoneurosis. There were also in this group a few psychosomatic cases and four stutterers referred from the Speech Department. Those cases of simple emotional immaturity so prevalent in a college group usually fell into Group A of Group II and needed only a few interviews to be helped. Many of the students seemed to be rather asocial, shy, withdrawn types of individuals with somewhat foggy thinking and were diagnosed as being a "schizoid" type of personality. Some of these individuals had physical complaints and some were also of neurotic character.

L. O.: This 22-year-old boy was a Navy veteran and had seen his diagnosis on his medical discharge papers, which said "schizoid personality." He came home after a rather severe emotional breakdown in the navy and for some months was brooding and preoccupied with the term "schizoid." He proceeded to look it up in dictionaries and psychology textbooks where he found further cause for dismay and confusion in such terms as "manic-depressive," "introvert," "homosexual," "Oedipus complex," all of which in some way he referred to himself. He came to college to study journalism and found that he was periodically depressed to the point where he could not concentrate on his work. He was a very attractive, intelligent student and had many positive traits in his character and personality which were emphasized and brought out as the interviews progressed. He responded very well to common-sense psychotherapy and a logical, organized discussion of his problems, fears and shortcomings. He improved remarkably well during the six months of interviews and maintained his good adjustment after graduation.

P. B.: A 20-year-old Junior who was seen over a period of two months of weekly interviews because of anxiety and many vague fears and crying spells. She was an extremely small but attractive girl who had been suffering with varying degrees of anxiety over a

period of several years due to various conflicts concerning family problems, adolescent and sexual adjustments. She had fallen in love at 16 and for four years had been "going steady." This boy was drafted and left for overseas during this period; before he left they became engaged and on several dates had indulged in rather extensive petting. While he was away she had marked anxiety and guilt feelings concerning this activity, but later on transferred her feelings to the more benign worry over her social adjustment. Any situation in which the least attention was called to herself would immediately result in the most uncomfortable bodily symptoms typical of anxiety: flushing, palpitations, dryness of the throat, and inability to speak, a "sunken feeling in the pit of the stomach," and hot and cold sensations in different parts of the body. As a background for this was the parental picture. Her mother was a rather emotionally unstable woman who had had several "nervous spells" and told her daughter she had had the same fears while she was pregnant with the patient. Her father was an unusually successful but rather strict, irascible, and distant personality for whom the girl had almost a hero-worship type of feeling. Gradually, over a period of weeks, she obtained a great deal of relief by being able to discuss her fears and the personal problems to which they were related and, when vacation time came, she was much improved.

Discussion

As can be seen from the above, there was a wide variety of problems among the students interviewed, from simple problems concerning choice of major subject, or "girl-friend" or "boy-friend" trouble, to more serious mental and emotional maladjustments. This is entirely natural and, as Clements Fry¹ has often pointed out, this group of college age individuals is notably in need of the type of psychiatric guidance and therapy that can be offered in a health service set-up because of the problems peculiar to the setting and age group: those of adolescence, the awakening of new and adult ideas, and the concurrent emancipation from previous family and religious ties. These problems in a basically poorly adjusted individual can easily develop into one of the more serious psychiatric reactions, such as schizophrenia, and are often accompanied in neurotic personalities by a large number of physical symptoms. When unheeded and untreated, these conditions can sometimes

¹ Fry, Clements, *Mental Hygiene in College*, New York Commonwealth Fund, 1942.

develop into chronic, incapacitating diseases which add to the already too long list of hospital cases. The beauty of these cases is, however, that they lend themselves easily to treatment and the therapeutic response is more than gratifying. So many times it seems that an incipient mental illness may have been "nipped in the bud," and many a disorganized, poorly adjusted personality helped to become a constructive, worthwhile and happy member of the community.

The benefit of such treatment to the individual student is matched by the benefits enjoyed by the medical staff of the health service. It represents a tremendous saving in time and energy in the first place. In this particular experiment, two medical doctors were handling approximately 100 cases a day. If a day of work was about 8 hours, that would mean that each student would have an average of approximately 8 or 9 minutes worth of attention. This may be enough for sprained ankles, sore throats, and minor complaints, with a little more time being allowed for physical examinations, X-rays, B.M.R.'s, and a little less for the frequent dispensation of drugs by the nurse. Understandably enough, however, it is not sufficient for a student who wants to try to explain to someone that he has nightmares at night and is depressed and beset by vague fears all during the day; or the student who has many physical complaints with a background of family insecurity and emotional maladjustment. These things take a good deal of time and constitute the type of thing that can easily "heckle" an already distraught director of an overloaded student health set-up. Dr. Holden states¹ that he believes from 25 to 40% of his cases should be seen by the psychiatrist.

This gives some indication of what the problem is. Dr. Holden's figures agree with those of the population as a whole and the consensus of opinion concerning Army figures. This means that approximately one out of every four college students coming to the health service of a university should be seen by the psychiatrists. Any university or college with an enrollment of over 500 should have available at least a part-time psychiatrist. With the rapidly increasing enrollment over the country as a whole, this problem is reaching staggering proportions. Dr. Lewis Barbato, recently

¹ In letter to the authors.

employed by the University of Denver as a full-time psychiatrist, has stated¹ that within the first few weeks his appointment schedule was heavily loaded with several new cases coming in every day.

As to the manner in which these cases come to the attention of the psychiatrist, this is largely a matter of how well established the service is and, especially, how well oriented the physicians at the health service may be in recognizing neurotic symptoms and personal problems. Once a service is set up, there will be no lack of individuals who will come in for help voluntarily, or who will be referred by the many departments on the campus. Students will be sent in by their roommates, by friends who have received help, by their teachers, by their faculty advisers, by the Student Counselling Service, by the dormitory heads, and by the Speech and Psychology Departments. There should be a ready liaison between these latter departments and the psychiatric consultants in order to save time and grief by seeing the students early. There should also be close liaison with the Physical Education Department or whoever happens to be concerned with presenting customary mental hygiene lectures.

Some word should be said concerning the value of such a service in a psychiatric training program. The two authors took part in this work during the last year of their three-year Commonwealth Fellowship in psychiatry while training at the Colorado Psychopathic Hospital. It not only proved to be valuable from a training standpoint, because cases of this type and in this age group are rather rare in a hospital service, but it was extremely gratifying from a therapeutic standpoint. A good percentage of the cases seen in psychiatric hospitals are naturally either far-advanced chronic cases or have illnesses of such severe proportions on admission that many times little progress is seen in the course of treatment. On the other hand, these cases seen at the University were young people with milder problems and earlier mental disturbances which were usually amenable to treatment and rapid results were often seen.

A note of warning should also be sounded to those who believe that such simple problems as some of those outlined above can be treated by the campus psychologist or any sympathetic counsellor.

¹ In letter to the authors.

Such is not the case, and indeed is an extremely dangerous view to hold. Only a psychiatrist or an especially trained psychiatric social worker under psychiatric supervision is equipped to recognize the more deep-seated, serious illnesses from some of the simple surface phenomena; and only a physician can be sure how far to go in interpreting physical ailments as an outgrowth of emotional disorder.

Summary

1. Ninety-four cases of students with emotional difficulties were seen at the Student Health Service of the University of Colorado.

2. A statistical survey of these cases is presented.

3. Review of the year's work proves that a psychiatric consultant is an invaluable adjunct to any university health service from the following viewpoints:

a. Preventing mental disease.

b. Providing practical mental hygiene for the students.

c. Time-saving from the resident physicians' standpoint.

d. Providing a valuable part of a graduate psychiatric training program.

e. Increasing the efficiency of the health service and the university or college as a whole.

4. Where facilities are available, the same purpose may be more adequately served by a full-time mental hygiene clinic.

WRITER'S MAGIC

By A. GROVE DAY

University of Hawaii

"I wish I could write! I have a mass of material; I know all I need to know about grammar and composition; I could tell a useful story if only I could get started!"

More people than ever are saying this today. The war and the needs of the postwar world have shown how necessary it is to use writing and reading to hold civilization together. Hundreds of potential authors lack one thing that might make them real authors—an understanding of the process of literary invention.

The process consists of several steps. The novice, who easily takes the first step, is unaware of the symptoms that foretell progress, becomes discouraged, and quits before he has given himself a chance. He is unaware that much of the writer's job must be done before he puts pen to paper. The effort to set down an effective paragraph or page reveals the sad fact that the thinking process which should precede the writing process has been shoddily done.

"Think before you write" is, of course, the usual textbook advice to the novice. Writing becomes a pleasurable exercise if the idea is well in mind and the goal is clear, so that the task becomes one of concentrating on matters of style and tone. The full-stored mind joyfully empties itself on the written sheet.

The trouble with this advice is that the novice knows almost nothing about the technique of thinking which produces good writing. Seldom is he able to stand aside, as it were, and observe his own mind in operation on the problem. The more expert writer succeeds now and then in practicing the art of literary invention, but too often he is at the mercy of trial-and-error methods or of wasteful, wistful hopes of "inspiration" from the blue. The professional writer has probably threshed out a method that works for him most of the time—if it didn't work he would soon cease to

be a professional—but even he is seldom able to describe how his writing mind works at its best.

Thinking to a purpose is the toughest task known to man. No one can practice it for long at a time. It is always accompanied by feelings of strain. We know really very little about how it is done. Yet there is a technique to it, as there is a technique to writing, and technique can be taught. Let us see if those who think about thinking have any counsel to give about the steps in the process, about short-cuts that may be found, and about the typical way in which thought may result in a piece of original writing.

II

There are seven steps in the process which result in the solution of any writing problem.

Conception of a Need. The first step may be a feeling of tension or excitement resulting from the realization that a writing job is to be done or a literary problem is to be solved. The need may arise merely because one has been asked to write a paper, to give a report to an employer, or to turn in a story for the next issue of a magazine. It may, on the other hand, arise because one feels that he has something personal to say on a subject which has not been properly developed by others, that public opinion must be changed, or that he has promising material to be worked up into a poem or even a novel.

Before proceeding much further, the thinker should attempt to state in clearest form just what is his problem. If he has no goal or purpose in mind, his "thinking" will be idle daydreaming. His problem, once stated, may be obviously unanswerable, or at least unanswerable in its first form. Further work usually shows the need of restatement of the question in more specific terms. Why strive to fulfill a need or answer a question which the thinker does not have clearly in mind? The worker should ask himself: "Do I understand what is needed? What is the main idea? What materials do I have for advancing toward the answer? What areas are still unknown?" If he can explain clearly where he wishes to go, he is already part way to the second step.

Often, however, discouragement immediately follows the con-

ception of a writing need. An attack of "writer's stage-fright" comes along: the worker fears that he will fail to do his best; that everyone will harshly condemn his efforts; that this sort of idea has already been treated, and treated better, by other writers; that not now, if ever, is he ready to do justice to his theme. Worries of this idle variety are natural; they may also be useful if they are harnessed to some purpose, to drive the writer speedily ahead to the next stage of the process. Creation must go ahead of criticism.

Preparation. This step consists in focusing all of the writer's experience and knowledge on the problem. Here conscious, methodical effort is required. For a brief piece of writing, perhaps some exercises in recollecting previously known facts and feelings will suffice. (Education, in one sense, is a means of storing the mind with the materials for thought.) For a longer piece, this step may require interviewing many people, hours of desk work or library work, and the taking of notes. Scholars engaged on a large work may spend years on this step, which is then called "research." The answers to many questions will arrive as a result of this often pedestrian labor, which is on the whole usually enjoyable—sometimes so enjoyable that a writer will linger in this stage for days or months after the time when it should be clear that research is yielding few new results and that he should plunge into the business of putting all results into written use.

Now, many times this period of preparation will give all the answers necessary to fulfill the writer's need. Often, however, problems will have arisen which seem insoluble. The writer is "stuck." He has consciously tried to go ahead; he has reached an impasse. He should not give up; there is still a method that he may practice, if he knows about it. Although this method has seldom been described, it may be defined as the effort to give inspiration a chance to strike through the act of submitting the problem to the subconscious mind.

Incubation. This scheme of storing away problems in the hope that they will hatch some sound solutions has been practiced often but seldom explained. Here we are on shaky ground, for the workings of the subconscious mind, or the subliminal self, or insight, or intuition—whatever it may be called—have not often

been experimentally studied for practical purposes. All that we really know is that this scheme often works, and that practice can make it work more often. Getting results through incubation of ideas is sound, if the remarks of various thinkers and writers can be trusted.¹ No professional writer can produce valuable ideas day after day without having stumbled upon this "secret" which Mark Twain, who considered the writer's mind as a tank which is periodically filled and drawn upon, has well described: "It was then that I made the great discovery that when the tank runs dry you've only to leave it alone and it will fill up again in time, while you are asleep—also while you are at work at other things and are quite unaware that this unconscious and profitable cerebration is going on."²

¹ Several of these are given by Graham Wallis in Chapter 4 of *The Art of Thought*, which is the best brief treatment of the subject that I can find, and from which I have borrowed the names of several steps of the process. The greatest extended study in English of the creative mind of a writer is *The Road to Xanadu*, 1927 and 1930, by John Livingston Lowes, dealing with Coleridge; Chapters 3 and 4 are mainly concerned with the poet's subconscious work. Edgar Allan Poe's celebrated "Philosophy of Composition," 1846, affects to despise "intuition" and rationalizes the all-embracing rôle of the intellect. The artist's mind at work is described by Paul Valéry, "Introduction to the Method of Leonardo da Vinci" (*Dial*, June and July, 1926; reprinted in *Variety*, 1927). The playwright's use of inspiration is examined by André Lévêque, "François de Curel: Observations sur la Création Dramatique," Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, June, 1937. The genesis and growth of a short story is fully described by Dorothy Canfield Fisher, "How 'Flint and Fire' Started and Grew," 1920. Ellen Glasgow described her method in "One Way to Write Novels," 1934. Scattered examples of inspirations on story ideas are given in *How Writers Write*, 1937, edited by N. S. Tillet, and *Creating the Short Story*, 1929, edited by Henry Goodman. Specific examples of the practical value of "unconscious work" in mathematical invention are given by Henri Poincaré in "Mathematical Creation," *The Foundations of Science*, 1913 and 1921 (abridged in *Engineering Education*, 1928, edited by Ray Palmer Baker). Other applications to mathematics are found in *How To Solve It*, 1945, by G. Polya, and *Psychology of Invention in the Mathematical Field*, 1945, by Jacques Hadamard. The general process is dealt with in Chapter 4 of *Becoming a Writer*, 1935, by Dorothea Brande, and in Book 6 of *Creative Imagination*, 1929, by June E. Downey. Catharine Patrick, in *Creative Thought in Poets* (Archives of Psychology, no. 178, 1935) and other papers, has studied the stages of preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification. See also E. D. Hutchinson, "The Period of Elaboration in Creative Endeavor," *Psychiatry*, 5, 1942.

² From *Mark Twain in Eruption*, 1940. Other writers have considered the subconscious mind as a kind of reservoir; Henry James wrote: "I . . . dropped it [his plot for *The American*] for the time into the deep well of unconscious cerebration: not without the hope, doubtless, that it might eventually emerge from that reservoir, as one had already known the buried treasure to come to light, with firm iridescent surface and a notable increase in weight." Coleridge's "twilight realms of consciousness" assumed "a confluence of our recollections" through which "we establish a centre, as it were, a sort of nucleus in [this] reservoir of the soul."—*Biographia Epistolaris*, 1911, Vol. II. Ellen Glasgow wrote: "All I had to do before

What is this seemingly magic method? When you have worked as hard as you can on your problem, simply state the difficulty as clearly as possible, submit it to your subconscious mind, and—forget about it for a while.

III

Nothing may result. Nothing will result if the preparatory, exploratory work has not been done faithfully; for the mind can work only with the material already stored in it, and the "inspiration" which can come is always offered as new combinations of previous experiences. The subconscious presumably gets results by shuffling all the possible combinations and presenting only those which may appeal to the thinker's need. "The sterile combinations," remarks Poincaré, "do not even present themselves to the mind of the inventor." It does not create something out of nothing. Even our airiest dreams are subconscious recombinations of bits of daylight experience. Herein lies the reward for the faithful preparation that has been done; for inspiration never comes unless this voluntary work has been put in, even though it seemed absolutely fruitless at the time. Says Polya: "Only such problems come back improved whose solution we passionately desire or for which we have worked with great tension; conscious effort and tension seem to be necessary to set the subconscious work going."

The period of incubation requires a minimum amount of time—the novel had formed was to leave the creative faculty (or subconscious mind) free to work its own way without urging and without effort," and gave as her Rule 1: "Always wait between books for the springs to fill up and flow over." A few other testimonies by writers on the rôle of the subconscious may be given here. From John Dryden's dedication of *The Rival Ladies* (1664): "This worthless present was designed you, long before it was a play; when it was a confused mass of thoughts, tumbling over one another in the dark: when the fancy was yet in its first work, moving the sleeping images of things towards the light, there to be distinguished, and then either chosen or rejected by the judgment." From Goodman, *Creating the Short Story*: (Konrad Bercovici) "But all this is not done in the conscious, stilted manner taught in universities, but in the unconscious free manner dictated by one's creative impulse." (Charles Caldwell Dobie) "But my method is more or less subconscious. I suppose I've developed an unconscious technic." (Waldo Frank) "Finally, I felt the ideal growing organic: exerting pressure on my consciousness. When the time and opportunity were ripe, I then consciously began to think of the embryonic story." (Thyra Samter Winslow) "Then in the middle of a period of despair, a plot, all done, pops into my mind, a plot that has been 'cooking' in my subconscious for a long time." From C. Day Lewis, *Poetry For You*, 1944: "But the seed of the poem has passed into him, into the part of him we call 'the unconscious mind.'"

often a long time—and therefore cannot always produce results upon demand. For this reason, a writer should start work well in advance of the deadline. For this reason, the most efficient thinker is likely to have his mind stored with a number of problems at all times, so that incubation of one idea can take place while he is consciously working on another. The prolific writer is usually one who has his mind filled with “work in progress.”

The eliciting of “inspiration” cannot be forced by conscious effort, for it arises from no conscious realm. It may be suspected, however, that there are ways of advancing the process by practice, and of putting one’s mind in the way of receiving this help more easily. Means to do this will suggest themselves after the whole process is further described.

Intimation. The next step is to seize the familiar “flash of inspiration” which may come at any time, and which offers a path to solution. This “guess of genius” is a shy and furtive thing, and must be cunningly snared. How many world-shaking ideas have been lost because the first intimation flickered out and was forgotten, or because the thinker had no pencil handy to make notes, or because a telephone bell or a “person from Porlock” rudely derailed the train of thought? The intimation arrives first as a sort of “fringe” effect on the edge of consciousness, and must be lured into the mind and made at home there. If it promises to come, the thinker should stop everything and open his mind to its reception. If he is reading, he should not read another line until his thought becomes more clear.

At this stage, a few brief notes are sometimes necessary. It would be well to avoid putting down a fuller account until the implications of the idea are nurtured to a clearer state.

Illumination. This stage is often considered to be a part of intimation. Both stages come suddenly and are over quickly; and they are usually accompanied by excitement and a feeling of success. The full recognition of the idea, however, may be called “illumination,” and at this stage the idea can be consciously examined and notes made.

Again and again, writers have found that illumination comes at unexpected moments, when the conscious mind is pondering other things or is momentarily idle. It is likely that the process is

encouraged by putting the mind in a state where there is little interference with its free working. The incubation of ideas may be fostered by a good amount of complete mental relaxation. The process may be hampered by reading, for then the mind is being fed with the words of others, leaving no room for original contemplation. Discussing the problem with a friend may be helpful, although it offers the danger that all the desire to write may be killed by the easy satisfaction of expressing one's ideas in conversation. Mere busyness of mind will probably prevent the emergence of good ideas above the conscious threshold. Strénuous physical exercise is, of course, deadening to thought; one cannot compose a poem while he is running for his life. Intense mental fatigue is likewise inhibitive.

On the other hand, mild, monotonous tasks such as many factory or clerical jobs may encourage daydreaming that could be put to work; playing solitaire or raking leaves often has the same effect. Graham Wallis cites the physicist Helmholtz as getting his best new ideas "during the slow ascent of wooded hills on a sunny day." A restful stroll may produce dozens of ideas; the liking of poets for solitary rambles is something more than a mannerism. Charles Darwin in his *Life and Letters* says, of the moment when his theory of evolution by natural selection came to him: "I can remember the very spot in the road, whilst in my carriage, when to my joy the solution occurred to me." Henri Poincaré made an important mathematical discovery while stepping into an omnibus. One writer of my acquaintance takes a shower bath when he is "stuck" in his story, and usually emerges damp and full of new devices. Every writer should experiment to discover the times when his own mind is most open to illumination, and arrange to put himself in the way of this experience in times of need. One may welcome an occasional night of insomnia, because then unplumbed thoughts rise to the surface and torment him until he rises and notes them down.

Verification. Every idea that comes to us is not, of course, useful or valid. Everyone has had the experience of awakening from sleep with a brilliant scheme or answer to a problem in his mind—only to realize, as the conscious mind took over, that the idea was an absurdity. The paths to solution must, therefore, be subjected

to all the tests of validity and logic that the conscious mind can furnish. Many times the "inspiration" simply will not work. But if it cannot be verified, the process of incubation can be tried again and again, until a clearly valuable answer to the problem is discovered.

Expression and Revision. This is the stage of actual writing—the stage at which the tyro vainly thinks he can begin work. Yet not until now, the seventh stage of the creative process, is it worth while to put down the result in words. Now, and only now, is the writer able to jot down an outline based on his thinking, to write a first draft, to edit his work, and to utilize all the writing technique that can be taught in a course in composition.

IV

A word or two on writing the first draft may not be out of place. There are only two ways of writing a first draft.

The first way is common to most beginners—to write off or dictate at a "white heat" with the single intention of pouring out all one's ideas into words before the ideas are lost to mind, letting style and diction fall where they may. This method has the advantage of promoting freshness of approach and unity, for a paper written at a single sitting often does have these merits. On the other hand, there is often a loss, for the writer is concentrating on matter at the expense of manner; and his first draft cannot be revised into a good paper simply by juggling punctuation or shifting sentences about or hunting for synonyms. What he has produced is simply an expanded mass of notes. Furthermore, he often finds it difficult to change his expressions, because the fact that they are written down in a certain way gives them a spurious immutability; the objective appearance of the first chosen words blocks the writer from going back to the point where he had not made any choice and could still search for the better way of expression. A further danger in the "white heat" method is the possibility that the writer will be at the mercy of his chance association of ideas, and will unknowingly diverge further and further from his goal as he writes; this danger may be reduced if he refers frequently to his stated main purpose and to an outline.

Theoretically, it might be possible to write a draft in which manner was stressed at the expense of matter. Such an effort, however, usually leads to no result at all; the tyro cannot write even one effective sentence if he is torturing himself with the fear that the style will be less than perfect. Too many hopeful writers do not write anything because of this self-conscious concentration on manner of expression; they are like the fabulous centipede who, when asked to explain how he managed a hundred legs at once, began to worry and wound up in a ditch, unable to get anywhere.

The other alternative is to combine the two aims of expression, and to keep one eye on matter and another on manner while the first draft is being written. This method is more difficult, but it saves time and travail in the end, for the task of revision is much lighter. Most of the skilled writer's skill consists in his practiced ability to bestride two horses at once, and keep taut the reins of both subject and style. The inexperienced writer can most profitably employ his practice time by trying to make his first draft as nearly as possible his final draft. He will often find to his delight that after a time the two tasks fuse into one, in a way that makes the expression flow smoothly and aptly from the thought.

The need for accuracy of phrase and for concentrated argument during the period of expression often leads to improvement upon the original plan or to the invention of quite new ideas, so that even this period of actual writing calls for the occasional use of the thinking process as a part of literary production.

A strong caution should be urged against trying to use this whole method in any formal or cut-and-dried way. The process is a personal and tenuous thing, and its value can be deadened by attempts to apply it as a finicky routine. The steps need not be taken in precise serial order; the writer may have an illuminating idea about the phrasing of a piece of detail even before his main purpose is clearly in mind. All the while, from start to finish, the mind is playing in and around the problem and its parts, and there is in the best writing experience a delicate wholeness of conception and execution which it would be absurd to try to analyze pedantically.

At any stage, new needs or problems may be uncovered which should be noted. These by-products are often more valuable than

the original idea. There is also a possibility that work on a later detail may suggest points that would enrich and revivify the whole original conception.

V

The process herein outlined serves not only for literary invention but for approaching the solving of creative problems of other sorts. It should be found useful in getting ideas for the other arts—the composition of a literary piece is only in medium and detail greatly different from the composition of a painting or a piece of music. It is also quite comparable to the descriptions we have of the work of an inventor who is devising a new apparatus or other practical application of science. It could be used to attack a problem in business organization or a sales promotion scheme. It is applicable to the solution of mathematical questions which lie beyond the mere calculations of the arithmetician; in fact, the best testimony I have found on this psychological process is that given by Poincaré on mathematical creation in fields where there is a multiplicity of possible paths to a solution and the subconscious mind is used to select, from this infinitude, plausible hypotheses for conscious verification.

It would be desirable to have the psychologists spend some time exploring further the process of creative thinking and, in particular, the possibility of hastening the period of subconscious selective activity. Until then, the method should be used with caution; but it will be used by those who have roughly worked it out, and for whom it works in turn. I would be loath to imply that there is such a thing as “writing without tears”; for I know of no human effort that demands more of all of a person than the task of literary creation. But often, if a writer only realizes that, by better knowing his own mind, he can improve his thinking and writing efficiency, he will at once begin to write more and write better.

THE IVORY TOWER—NO VACANCIES

By LANE W. LANCASTER

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In the Autumn, 1946 issue of the *Bulletin*, Professor Marian D. Irish both announces and hails the academic revolution that has taken place because of the recent public doings of political scientists. If another political scientist of sorts reads her "piece" correctly, it is reducible to two propositions. The first is that political science has ceased to be an academic subject "like history, geography, or Greek" and has become a practical discipline whose object it is to promote better citizenship. The second is that the discipline itself and American society have gained by the recent widespread participation of professors of political science in the practical tasks of government and administration. I should like to examine these two propositions, though I must warn the reader that, except for one almost forgotten excursion into the arena, I have been for twenty-five years an undisturbed tenant of a more or less comfortable ivory tower and for this reason I am doubtless ill-equipped to comment on the booming world which has passed me by.

It is not unfair to say, I think, that a part of the effectiveness of Miss Irish's "piece" is produced by the striking contrast which she draws between the professor of political science, old style, and his up-and-coming successor. The old timer, she says, was either a starry-eyed idealist or a confirmed and conscienceless cynic, and, "if he were clever he combined both points of view in a semi-serious, sarcastically humorous style." In any event he did not, presumably, earn his keep. Now it is admitted that there are "characters" and rogues in every discipline, but there is no reason to believe that political science is a fitter subject for this sort of caricature than any other. There is ample opportunity for the charlatan in every department from agricultural chemistry to zoology, and examples of stodginess and fecklessness in every one of them. Nor does it clinch the matter to charge the professor with

assigning papers on "purely Platonic" subjects. It was Woodrow Wilson who said that all life was not running to a fire; and all political science is not running to city council meetings. There are good subjects and bad subjects for papers, of course, but they are not bad because they involve library work and proper methods of presenting the results of one's reading. If this teaching device does nothing else it may inculcate habits of care in seeking and assembling facts and in drawing conclusions, against the day when the students graduate into "practical" affairs—unless, of course, no significant facts are to be found in libraries. It is my own feeling that students work far too little at library tasks, with the result that every year we graduate large numbers who are largely illiterate, if by literacy we mean the ability to understand a proposition and communicate it to others.

II

All this, however, is preliminary to an examination of Miss Irish's first proposition, namely, that political science instruction has in some way a unique claim to train for good citizenship or to prepare students for a public career. I suppose there is something in this though, I am inclined to think, much less than is commonly assumed. It all depends very likely upon what one considers a good citizen. If it means one who keeps himself informed about public questions by careful reading and habitual discussion and who always votes, then, I suppose, he may learn something to the point by the study of political science. I confess, however, that the usual emphasis on the accumulation of facts impresses me as taking us only a little way on the road. No one, unless he gives all of his time to it, can hope to know or understand even a small part of the facts upon which a judgment is to be recorded at the polls. In any community a few newspapermen and practicing politicians will be about all who can qualify. The rest of us must content ourselves with saying "yes" or "no" to the questions framed for us by the latter. Our best hope of seeing that the questions are the right ones consists in doing what we can to see that the politicians are the right ones. For a democracy is inescapably government by politicians. About all the teacher can

do is to acquaint the budding politicians at his feet with the substance of our democratic tradition, so that when they come to practice on the body politic they will do so within that tradition.

When the matter is put in this way it seems to me that the claims of political science as training for good citizenship are somewhat less than unique. I can easily conceive of students completely innocent of the subject being better citizens than some who have "majored" in it. It may well be that literature or philosophy or the natural sciences will be quite as adequate preparation. For these subjects may quicken the student's imagination, widen his sympathies, and deepen his understanding of the human enterprise. Perhaps no one was ever made any better by reading Shakespeare or more ethical by studying ethics, but his natural endowments may be strengthened and confirmed by such studies. This is another way of saying that something is lost by making political science a rather strictly vocational discipline as Miss Irish's article seems to suggest. People get to be good citizens in all sorts of ways and some very indirect approaches may be quite as efficient as the more obvious one. It seems to me that college faculties in tinkering with the curriculum too seldom ask themselves what kind of men and women they wish to assist in fashioning. We must have good *men* and *women* before we have good citizens, and it is my belief that the political scientist can contribute to this end by emphasizing and examining critically the development of the traditional elements in our state life. The time is past when reason can combat false ideologies—if reason ever could. Burke was right when he lauded prejudice (*i. e.*, preference for the traditional) as the chief safeguard of the existing order, though he may have been wrong in his unwillingness to examine that tradition.

With respect to the "laboratory" method of instruction as a way of contributing to good citizenship one may perhaps entertain a doubt. Under the influence of the physical sciences a considerable number of students have concluded that the secret of rule may be found by studying government "in action." Thus we find Miss Irish saying that students will learn about justice by attending a trial, about lawmaking by observing the legislature, and about local government by inspecting the fire and police de-

partments. I suppose such excursions are harmless and they are certainly often interesting; yet I think we should not uncritically assume that what we see in any of such cases is the whole truth of the matter. Do the wheels of justice actually revolve in a real case, except perhaps in a symbolic sense? Does not the determination of a cause involve rather Bracton and Glanville, Henry II and his hapless son, King John, Coke and Mansfield and Kenyon and Blackstone, the statesmanship of John Marshall, the literary artistry of Holmes, the rounded periods of Webster, the shrewd arguments of thousands of unsung country advocates, and the vagaries of forgotten juries? Something like this is the great tradition in the law. Unless he knows it the student brings to the courtroom little equipment with which to understand what goes on there. And this he can learn best from books.

Much the same sort of thing can be said about observing a legislature in action. I am sure that most of us who have attended these meetings have the feeling that we are listening to speeches "for the record" and not to change votes, and that when the roll is called we are witnessing the formal recording of a decision taken elsewhere. It was a wise man who said that the real rulers of society are undiscoverable. Statute law is indeed the product of a tangled set of contacts, personal and institutional, most of them only dimly reflected in the formal procedure by which they are reduced to a rule. Over this procedure hover the ghosts of the Commons of 1414 extracting from the king the promise that he will add nothing to their petitions contrary to their tenor, of Pym and Hampden and Wilkes, Burke, Gladstone, John Randolph of Roanoke, the Old Man Eloquent defending stubbornly the right of petition, Mr. Speaker Reed sarcastically declaring the presence of a quorum. Legislative procedure makes sense only against this sort of background and only then to students with imagination enough to be aware of the baffling complexity of the forces seeking to capture the machinery of the state.

Finally, when it comes to making good citizens, I am inclined to think that we professors take ourselves too seriously. Most of us do not have the skill of Socrates and, if we did, and if our students were as teachable as were his, our opportunities are severely limited. Let us assume that a "major" student is with us six hours

a week for the last two or two and a half years of his college course. Let us assume further—what, I fear, is seldom true!—that he devotes twelve additional hours each week to political science. There are 150 other hours to account for, during some of which he is being “educated” in other courses, in campus politics, in social affairs, and in his contacts on Main Street. For all but a very few what we say or do is of little lasting consequence and for all I know, washing dishes for his board, or waiting table, or “making” a senior society may, in some mysterious way, do more to make him a good citizen than what goes on in the most efficient classroom. I do not *think* so, but, until the educational experts can trot out a better measuring stick for these matters than they have so far produced, I prefer to remain humble about my own part in the enterprise.

III

The second proposition to be examined is that the profession and society at large have profited by the recent excursions of the professors into practical affairs. The inhabitant of an ivory tower in criticizing adversely this point of view may, of course, be simply rationalizing his own preference for the comfortable and irresponsible life of a stick-in-the-mud. Be that as it may, comment even from such a source may not be wholly without point.

It all began with the New Deal and the resort of the president to the brains in the colleges and universities. In a sense, I suppose, there can be no reasonable objection to the use of brains in government, though I suspect that through most of human history governments have got along after a fashion without them, rubbing along somehow with other sorts of equipment. Undoubtedly government and administration are difficult arts which ought not to be committed to incompetent hands. And it is very likely true that the teacher who has had a share in ruling, however minor, returns to his academic work in some respects a better teacher. His prestige with his students may well be higher, since they will think of him as speaking out of “practical” experience; and he himself may so far accept the popular judgment about practicality as to lose some of the feeling of inferiority which academic persons seem to have in a society such as ours.

But I think it an error to believe that, beyond the narrow range of strictly ministerial functions, the professor is effective in public service because of his academic training. In functions involving no discretion his training may stand him in good stead, but in a democracy these functions are probably far fewer than is generally supposed, and are in any case usually not performed at the level into which professors have been recruited. At every level of government, when we pass beyond the purely manipulative tasks, the line between the political and the administrative, about which a good deal used to be said in the classroom, tends to lose its sharpness. In this area administrative detail becomes the stuff of policy, statistical "facts" become protean in nature, and official determinations involve curious blends of the scientific and the eclectic. In this area, when the professor succeeds he succeeds *not because* he is a professor but because he manages in spite of his training to learn some of the tricks of the politician.

IV

This brings me to one final reflection. What price do the professor and the profession pay for the academic revolution? Is the tradition of the separation of "town and gown" so unreasonable that its abandonment is cause for rejoicing? Should we really congratulate ourselves that "when the professor of political science climbed over the ivy walls, he joined the Kiwanis, the Rotarians, the Exchange Club" and "hobnobbing with business men, he learned the tactics of go-get-it"? Can anyone be really happy because the professor "has gone in for public relations in a big way," thus joining those who study to win friends and influence people in behalf of tooth paste, soap chips, and shoe polish? Obviously all this sort of thing makes some people happy, but may there not be another way of looking at it? Our author is exactly right in her statement that separation of town and gown was intended to assure the college the peace of academic freedom "when all about it were turbulent and seething forces," though she does not think the tradition worth preserving. But this is to argue that the professors and the college should be added as another to the "turbulent and seething forces" in the community, thus leaving

the community without the one group where relative neutrality could be found. It is going to be difficult for the public to believe that it can get disinterested intellectual leadership from men and women who return to their posts as ex-New Dealers; or for sympathizers with the New Deal to trust the "conservatives" who stayed on the job, no matter how innocent their reasons for doing so may have been. It will do the former no good to protest his lack of partisanship, while the latter cannot say convincingly,

Thus did I keep my person fresh and new,
My presence, like a robe pontifical

College and university endowments exist primarily because even a democracy has a faith that security should be given a type of individual and a way of life be preserved, even though that way of life pays no immediate dividends. The world gets governed, so far as it permits itself to be governed at all, by a kind of wisdom with which professors of political science have little to do. Chemists, physicists, engineers, and agronomists have had more to do with the preservation of our political system than all the rest of us put together, because they have made possible those additions to our wealth without which the inherent wastefulness of democracy would be intolerable. As our margin of material wealth grows narrower, larger and larger drafts will be made upon the wisdom of politicians. This wisdom is not scientific for there is no science of politics. Effective rulers are simply men of good judgment. They come by this judgment in various ways, some of them in the classroom, but more of them by ringing doorbells and pitting their wits in the caucus against other virtuosi. By the usual intellectual standards these men are rather "ordinary," and the game they play so assiduously is redeemed from complete crassness and futility only because they have come to believe a little that the state *is* a partner in all art, in all science, and in all perfection. Some sense of this may be conveyed, I think, by a good teacher even though he lives in an ivory tower. I simply raise the question of whether it can be adequately conveyed by one who comes to the rostrum as a partisan.

AN ETHICAL ARGUMENT FOR DEMOCRATIC UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION¹

By WILLIS MOORE

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Those who support a high degree of faculty participation in university and college administration usually direct their argument to the superior efficiency of this as compared with the traditional mode of procedure. The major forms of this argument, reflecting the various possibilities of efficiency in such an institution, are as follows:

(1) Faculty participation in administration provides a formal means of ready communication among the three principal elements in the educational institution concerned. This easy communication should, in turn, so enhance mutual understanding and sympathy as to encourage, if not insure, something close to a harmonious, working partnership among faculty, administration, and board of control. Negatively this argument asserts that the eventual and inevitable alternative to cooperative endeavor is the typical organized conflict situation of a unionized faculty arrayed against the administration and the board, the suggestion being that this alternative is less conducive to efficiency than is the favored plan.

(2) In schools, as in political governments, democratic procedures encourage more broadly based and, in the long run, more effective decisions. This contention rests upon the observation that such decisions stem from the multiple, and hence relatively complete, perspective of many minds. Moreover, the wide discussion of issues preceding democratic decisions is almost bound to bring out weaknesses or dangers which would escape the eyes of the keenest minded and the most benevolent of despots. It is true that large numbers of people move ponderously, even where

¹ From an address presented to the Chapter of the Association at Southwest Missouri State College on February 28, 1947.

they are well informed; but, after all is said and done, they do move, and both fast enough to meet the most pressing needs and slow enough to avoid the most glaring errors. Such careful movement to decisions is thus, in the long run, in the interests of educational efficiency.

(3) Faculty participation in administration tends to restore the proper balance as between the academic and the business aspects of our institutions of higher learning. Gone are the days when the president of the college, recently risen from the ranks himself, continued to teach at least one course alongside his colleagues, thus retaining an intimate acquaintance with the problems and needs of the purely academic situation. Many college presidents of this day are professional administrators, promoted, perhaps, from the business office or imported from the outside business world. But even if his background is that of pure scholarship, the growing bulk of business details connected with the running of a modern university will quickly preempt so much of the time and energy of the president (or dean) that the following situation will ensue: either the educational policy of the school is sadly neglected or it becomes little more than a projection into the academic realm of the procedures and ideals of the business office. Some people suggest, therefore, as a means of restoring the properly balanced and, again, in the long run the more efficient, direction of university affairs, the entrusting of a fair share of administrative policy forming to the members of the teaching staff.

II

These arguments are well founded and are sufficient in themselves to justify the general program of the American Association of University Professors; but there is another and highly important consideration which has escaped attention in these debates. It has been used in the defense of political democracy but the circumstances which give it cogency are not confined to political societies. On any campus where the traditional type of administration prevails the conditions which suggest this further argument are obvious and have been described by numbers of writers in this journal. What I propose to do is to try to make evident

the connection I see between these conditions and the conclusion reached by the other paths described above.

One of the consequences of any form of institutionally organized behavior is the type of character developed in those who participate in it. Too often this factor is either neglected altogether or treated as an unimportant by-product of the central function of the institution. Broadly humanistic thinkers, however, from Plato down to our own John Dewey have insisted that one of the primary evaluative questions we should ask of any institution is: What kind of man does it tend to produce? The fact that this question is an ethical one and that it is usually asked only of political institutions does not render it irrelevant in the present context.

A university or college is a form of community in terms of which a number of people carry out their specific functions as parts of the broader society. If it is true, as I think to be the case, that man's character is influenced by the institutionally induced behavior of political activities, which touch him infrequently and relatively remotely, how much more formative must be the university set-up with respect to the people who act within its framework. Consequently, it is my contention that it is not enough to know that a given type of university organization is efficient in regard to its primary function of discovering and disseminating truth; we must know also that it provides the conditions for the development of the best possible human beings among those who operate within its confines. And I doubt that we shall have to choose between an efficient university organization and one conducive to the production of desirable human character; for it is highly probable that, in the long run, the two are the same.

It is not mere gossip that the traditional type of university organization, in which the administrators "run things," is conducive to the growth of certain undesirable types of character among its personnel. The same psychological principles which admittedly apply in political situations function here. In an autocratic educational institution the participants gradually sift out into a number of well-defined groups. Those who rule in such a society are either initially suited to the rôle of tyrant or tend to become so by virtue of the inherent pressures of the office. At the opposite extreme are those in whom prevailing circumstances have devel-

oped that latent plasticity to the will of others which is, in some degree, in all of us. This group is made up of those people seen on every such campus, ones who bend the knee and bow the head, partly from induced habit and partly from anticipation, not always disappointed, of preferential administrative treatment. And to one side stand the few, altogether too few, who, being naturally less pliant than the rest, remain a defiant, but eventually also a discouraged or even frustrated, segment of the community involved. These three types, together with the indifferent, of whom we always have a fair contingent, just about exhaust the list of types in the sort of community we have been sketching.

I doubt that many would disagree with the judgment that this type of community is an undesirable one by reason of the sorry characters its own forms have developed; but some may argue that, though the autocratic university organization is conducive to the development of such men, the remainder of their activities as family members, as church goers, as citizens, and so on go far toward curing the wounds and distortions of professional encounters. To some extent this is the case; but it is almost self-evident that the pattern of a man's major function is the most influential in whatever character effects institutionalized behavior may have.

The preventive, if not the cure, of the malformations just described obviously consists in a different sort of university organization; and, again borrowing from the field of political and social ethics, we may contend that a system in terms of which the members of the academic staff actively participate and count for something in the running of their school would, from the ethical viewpoint, be more desirable. The required system, if the argument is straight, is none other than that democratic one long advocated by far-seeing and liberal educators both within and without the American Association of University Professors.

UNIVERSAL MILITARY TRAINING

By GEORGE F. ZOOK

American Council on Education

Editor's Note: Whether or not the United States should adopt a system of universal military training is a question of deep concern to all citizens. This question has been given long and careful consideration by the representatives of education through their several organizations federated in the American Council on Education. The statement, "Universal Military Training," by George F. Zook, that follows is from Dr. Zook's annual report as President of the American Council on Education. It was presented at the recent annual meeting of the Council held in Washington, D. C., May 2-3, 1947. At the meeting of the delegates of the constituent organizations of the Council on January 24-25, 1947, referred to in the second paragraph of Dr. Zook's statement, the American Association of University Professors was represented by Professors William T. Laprade and Ralph E. Himstead. The latter was a member of the Committee which prepared the statement adopted by the meeting.

In the light of developments since Dr. Zook's report on May 2, among them the report of the President's Advisory Commission on Universal Military Training, it is evident that the subject of universal military training continues to be one of paramount importance and should, therefore, continue to receive the scrutiny and the thoughtful consideration of every member of the profession and of all other citizens. In this connection, it should be noted that the President's Commission did not address itself to the consideration of all aspects of the problem of national defense, an approach which, as indicated by Dr. Zook, had been recommended and urged by the representatives of higher education. On the contrary, the Commission confined itself to the consideration of universal military training, separate and distinct from all other proposed measures of national defense.

At its meeting in January, 1947 the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government once more addressed itself to the problem of universal military training with which the Council has been so much concerned ever since the

issue was first raised by the military authority. The occasion was the announcement by the War Department of its latest plan requiring one year of military training of all able-bodied young men reaching the age of 18. Service in the National Guard and the R.O.T.C. might be substituted for the second one-half of the year's training. Shortly thereafter, President Truman appointed a commission of distinguished individuals, headed by Karl T. Compton, President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, to investigate and report on this highly controversial issue.

After reviewing all that had been done by the Council and after a long conference with officials in the War Department, the Committee on Relationships adopted a report opposing universal military training until all aspects of the subject of national defense, including military training, had been thoroughly investigated and offering other concrete suggestions in lieu of the plan. This statement was presented to the meeting of the delegates of the constituent organizations belonging to the Council on January 24-25. After certain modification, the statement was adopted by the significant vote of 64 to 0.

The statement is as follows:

America must be sufficiently strong, militarily and industrially, to make its contribution to the successful operation of the United Nations in maintaining world-peace and to insure national safety until such time as the United Nations proves its effectiveness. To this end we urge that the proper agencies approach the problem of national strength constructively and objectively, free from pre-conceived conclusions.

Accordingly, we urge that the President's Advisory Commission on Universal Training be instructed to consider every aspect of national strength and security and all means of maintaining them, rather than limiting their consideration to universal military training alone. Rather, military training should be considered in its proper relation to the over-all program of national security. We believe that:

1. The Commission should provide for the research necessary to determine the strength of the armed forces required to give the nation adequate influence in the councils of the United Nations and insure its safety and the extent to which such a force can be recruited on a voluntary basis.
2. The Commission should consider and recommend policies to assure the most effective development of manpower (includ-

ing womanpower) and its use in the event of a national emergency.

3. Apropos to the foregoing, the Commission should recognize the importance of speedy and complete industrial mobilization and of the maintenance of a production force possessing the necessary skills and techniques appropriate to the requirements of modern warfare.

Pending the completion of such a comprehensive study, the Committee recommends:

1. That Selective Service be continued until such a time as the requirements for occupation and other military responsibility can be met by voluntary enlistment and that the quota be limited to the difference between the total strength of the armed forces authorized by the Congress and the number of men who volunteer.
2. That every effort be expended to encourage voluntary enlistments for active duty, possibly including extension of the benefits of the education and training provisions of Public Laws 16 and 346.
3. That the provisions of the Defense Act of 1920, which provides for expansion of the National Guard, Enlisted Reserve Corps, and R.O.T.C. and the establishment of voluntary training camps, be implemented.
4. Until the President's Commission has reported and until it is demonstrated that a program of universal military training is necessary to our national strength and security, we are opposed to the enactment of universal military training as a peacetime policy.
5. That every effort be made to develop and implement the United Nations to the end that international peace may be achieved through a disarmament program entered into by all nations.

It is clear from this résumé that the Council has given extended attention to this exceedingly important problem; but to the staff and committees of the Council it has been equally clear at all times that the problem of universal military training should not be considered apart from all other measures for national defense. In other words what we have needed, in this new age of jet planes, guided missiles, and atomic bombs, is the most careful study of all aspects of this problem, on the basis of which a comprehensive plan of national defense might be developed. Such a careful con-

sideration of all of the factors involved might lead or might not lead to the conclusion that universal military training in some form or other is desirable.

The request for a comprehensive consideration of this problem was brought repeatedly to the attention of the President by the Council and many other organizations. Nevertheless, when at long last the President did appoint such a commission, its terms of reference were to study and report on universal military training. I know that I voice the sentiment of the great majority of the members of the Council when I say that this was a fundamental mistake which will not be easy to repair. Indeed, the only way in which it can be repaired is for the Commission to interpret its charge so broadly that, when its report is forthcoming, the public may be convinced that, no matter what its findings are, they have been reached through an intimate knowledge and consideration of all the known factors in the national defense situation. I am certain that the Commission has gone about its work most carefully. I express the ardent hope, which I am sure the great majority of you share, that we may have from the Commission what is in effect a report on national defense.

The supporters of universal military training are undoubtedly perplexed as to why the great majority of the educators of this country are either opposed to or unconvinced of the necessity of universal military training. No one questions their patriotism or their sincerity. What then is back of the attitude of the educators? On what do they base their opinion? It is clear that educators have no more information about the international situation or the changing character of modern warfare than is equally accessible to the general public. But there are certain aspects of our national defense situation where educators have special competence and which they believe should have far greater priority in a carefully integrated system of national defense than has ever been accorded to them in the thinking of our military leaders or of the general public.

I propose to discuss briefly certain of these priorities in national defense.

First. The Army itself in the early days of the draft, November 1940, set as one of its standards for induction "to understand simple

orders given in the English language." By August 1, 1942, approximately 200,000 men had been deferred from military service for illiteracy alone. Then the Army decided it would have to use the illiterates in any way it could. Between August 1, 1942 and October 1, 1945 there were inducted into the Army alone 324,128 illiterates—the equivalent of nearly eight divisions—who, because of their lack of fundamental education, could not be mobilized profitably early in the war and who were doubtless of only limited use at any time in the war. What would Eisenhower or Bradley not have given many times on the Western front for another eight divisions of well-equipped and trained men! The contention of the educators is that remedying this situation is one of the first things in a comprehensive program of national defense about which this country, including the military authorities, should be deeply concerned. We have usually thought of this situation as being a regrettable matter of no necessary or immediate concern to you and me, especially as it related to our national security. My friends, it is much more than that. It could easily be the difference between defeat and victory in a life- and death-struggle for survival.

Second. A priority for national defense is to take appropriate measures to see to it that the disgraceful percentage of men rejected by Selective Service for physical defects is not repeated. I shall not attempt to go into the details of that situation because it is a complex matter but, as the forthcoming report of the Commission on the Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs brings out, it is believed that under ideal conditions of medical service and health education in the next twenty years rejections for military duty could be reduced by 40%.

Once more one can visualize many Army divisions of physically qualified, well-trained men who could be summoned to the armed defense of the country if our military plans were sufficiently comprehensive, sufficiently imaginative, may I say, to assign a high priority to this phase of national defense, so little appreciated and emphasized except when the draft rejections in a time of national emergency begin to roll in and then it is too late except in a small proportion of the cases. What, indeed, is more important in the national defense of a country than that its citizens—both men and

women—should be physically qualified to meet all the contingencies of modern warfare!

Third. A major concern in national defense is the question as to whether the country has at all times enough skilled workers to supply the needs of the armed services and of war industries in the event of war. In World War II there was a shocking deficiency of such workers—a deficiency which it took many precious months to repair through the heroic efforts of the schools, the industries, and the armed services. We cannot afford to risk another experience of this kind, and we do not need to because, as has been brought out by the work of the Council's Commission on the implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, "probably 75% of the skilled occupations which were taught in the armed services vocational classes were of the same type and subject matter content as practiced in civilian life. Examples are such subjects as refrigeration, electrical maintenance, machine-work, baking, shoe repair, and hundreds of others as shown in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles."

Here, again, is evidence of the need for comprehensive planning for national defense. The secondary schools of this country could, if there were proper planning, constantly maintain a supply of skilled workers which would substantially reduce the amount of specialized training necessary in time of war in the armed services and in industry. It is simply a matter of enlarging our conception of national defense and of making plans accordingly.

Fourth. As everyone knows, nothing was of greater importance in the second World War, nor can be in all future wars, than research facilities and trained personnel for the rapid developments of new instruments of warfare. What the schools should be able to do for the removal of illiteracy and the building of strong and healthy bodies for the great mass of our population should be matched by the colleges and universities in the advanced preparation of men and women for scientific research and by our government in the establishment of adequate laboratories and proving grounds. Fortunately, there seems to be fairly adequate appreciation of this fact in and out of Congress. If we have the "know-how" and the "wherewithal" to supplement the tremendous advantage we already possess in the atomic bomb, it will be a fool-

hardy nation, indeed, that will have the temerity to attack us.

Fifth. It has been well said that "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed." It would be equally true to say that it is in the minds of men that the defense of the country should be forged. In other words, as citizens of a great democracy, we must know why we fight and for what we are contending, whether it be on the field of battle or the field of diplomacy. As every military commander well knows, motivation and morale both in the armed forces and back home are worth many legions. This is a job for you and me, as civilian educators, but it is also an aspect of national defense second to few, if any, others in importance.

I have neither the time nor the competence to describe and evaluate other aspects of national defense such as the mobilization of industry, the character and size of the Regular Army and Navy, the training of Reserve officers through the R.O.T.C. and the N.R.O.T.C., and the size and place of the National Guard and its integration with other branches of the armed services. Sufficient has been said, I trust, to make it clear that national defense is an extremely complex matter and that it is something which is not the prerogative of the military authorities alone, but that it is an obligation to be shared by many other agencies of society, particularly the schools and colleges.

Educational leaders then have a right—indeed they have a solemn obligation, to have an opinion on the question as to whether universal military training has any significant place in the national defense of our country. And their opinion should certainly not be based on the inconvenience which would occur were groups of students, on account of required military training, made late for or subtracted from the colleges and universities for a year. Certainly, the colleges and universities proved during the war that they would make any sacrifice in the interests of national defense.

No. It is something much more important than that which makes the educators of this country oppose or hesitate about universal military training. They believe that all of the factors in national defense have not yet been weighed and their relative importance determined. They believe that it is equally if not more important in the interest of national defense to eradicate the

shame of illiteracy in this country. They believe that few steps, if any, are more necessary in the interest of national safety than that of developing a national health program. They have witnessed the crucial importance in national defense of skilled workers in and out of uniform. They are convinced that few, if any, provisions for national defense and national welfare are more significant than it is to raise the level of education in this country to the point where all the schools graduate young people who are intelligent about and deeply motivated with respect to international affairs.

In short, they believe that there are extremely important aspects of national defense to which entirely inadequate attention has so far been given. They believe that many of these aspects of national defense included in any plan of universal military training can best be undertaken through the educational system rather than by resorting to a year of expensive universal military training. They fear, rightfully, I think, that the huge sums necessary to defray the expenses of universal military training would delay and perhaps nullify the possibilities of securing consideration and planning in other areas of national defense which they believe to be equally if not more important. They suspect, though they may not know, that even the present plan calls for more time on the part of all young men in purely military training than the situation requires. They have honest doubts as to the possible carry-over value of a year of universal military training into civilian life. And, finally, they are sensitive, as all American citizens should be, to the necessity of striving, while we are still in so advantageous a position, for a national defense which is based on world cooperation and friendship.

AND WHAT OF THE YOUNG WOMEN?

By GERALDINE HAMMOND

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In a recent journal directed to English teachers this advertisement, this frantic cry, appeared:

The University of — is looking for two or three young men who have recently received their master's degrees. Experience in teaching is not necessary. Teaching load will consist of nine hours of composition and four of literature. Salary will be \$2400 for nine months, with the opportunity of earning \$450 additional in night school.

The offer seems to me a good one, especially when I remember that when I was in just the circumstance of these young men I taught sixteen hours, all freshman composition, for \$720 a year. There was a depression, yes, but it could hardly have made that much difference. However, that situation has been remedied and this is no personal complaint. It is rather an attempt to bring to the attention of members of this Association some facts about a minority group and perhaps to correct some mistaken ideas about that group.

The militant feminist is a pathetic and a beaten character. She brings to mind all the objections to her position before she has even stated it. I am a feminist, but only in the interest of conserving human resources and in the interest of making better use of society's full possibilities at a time when it is obvious that we need to make use of them.

The inequalities that exist between men and women in college teaching are well known to everyone and are easily put out of mind by everyone except the women themselves, especially the young women just entering the profession or still growing in it. It seems to me very strange that it is the academic, the enlightened, world which clings with death, or dying, grip to the ancient (and modern Hitlerian) ideal of woman's "place." Reasons advanced by our

"best" minds for the continuation of this unequal treatment are probably the least intelligent and the least well thought out reasons which they are likely to advance for anything. What are these reasons? Are they based on fact, on wishes, on false concepts? Must they continue to operate?

When a young woman, and I am speaking of the well-trained, efficient, ambitious young woman, asks why her salary and status are lower than her male colleague's she is told that it is still "a man's world" and that if she doesn't think so she should try to get a job in another institution or even in another profession and she will see at once that equal salaries are not generally given to women and men for equal work. The propounder of this reason sometimes bethinks himself in time to add that it is a deplorable situation and patently unfair, but what can he do?

The real reason behind this obvious stall is not, I think, any conscious antagonism or wish to drive women out of college teaching, but the attitude is often based on a deep-lying, even unconscious, tendency on the part of the male professor or administrator to think of woman as being out of her natural sphere in academic surroundings; so he uses the worn-out, meaningless remark as an excuse, hoping she will accept it as a reason. A woman is all right as a co-ed, but when she comes back after college with all the same training and preparation male students have been given, she is suspect and welcomed only as a stop-gap or a permanent instructor on the lower levels. Perhaps for all his advanced thinking the male professor is clinging to his ancient Teutonic rank as a man and a professor and fears that his prestige would be lessened by admitting women to equal status. If that is true, then he needs seriously to reconsider the kind of education he himself is giving to women students. Do women merely swell the numbers of his Milton class, his education courses, his graduate seminars? Should he not in fairness make clear to them that they should not expect to teach in college?

Another apology offered the young woman for the obvious lack of advancement in rank and salary is this: "But you have no family to support." It is unnecessary to point out to members of this organization the utter chaos contingent on this implication. When she sees a salary scale based on careful investigation of each

faculty member's financial obligations and number of dependents, she will be more inclined to give ear to this reason. Incidentally, under this system of limited free enterprise she might logically expect to see even men's salaries stop at a certain level when they have "enough" to support their families.

Now if our suppliant were to be given as a reason this: "You are not as good a teacher as a young man of equal training would be," then she might pause for reflection and self-evaluation. For this appears to me to be the only valid reason for the differences. Yet how can such a generalization—women are not as good college teachers as men—be used seriously and conscientiously by men ordinarily wary of generalization and unproved universal statements? The feeling, it is not more, that a woman will of necessity be a poorer teacher of college students is merely another form of an innate, and inane, attitude towards women. It is akin to other generalizations: they have no sense of humor; they cannot reason logically and without emotion; they are unstable. The syllogism works out; it is sound except for its major premise: all women are inferior to all men intellectually and emotionally. I repeat that if that is what American educators believe then it is imperative on them to change American education drastically. You cannot open all the doors through college and then with no warning close them all at graduation. At least you cannot do so morally and in good faith.

It happens that women are subject to as many individual differences within their sex as men are, a fact which college professors should know better than anyone else.

II

Since it is safe to assume that the discrepancies are not due to established and recognized differences in the abilities of the sexes, what then are the real causes of the inequalities? I think there are two main ones, and in discussing them I can only hope to expose some fallacies lurking in the unadmitted background-opinion that colors otherwise rational concepts, fallacies that cannot live in the light of intelligent, considered thought. The cause that operates most strongly, I believe, is a wish on the part of administrators and

heads of departments to build prestige and reputation. Prestige can be achieved only by bringing in the ambitious, well-trained young men. Why? For no good reason except that it is like that everywhere else. Why does our University of—quoted above want “two or three young men?” Why not two or three people with possibilities for becoming good teachers? Because it wishes to build prestige. The remedy for this fallacious attitude is in common sense. Names, unless of well-known scholars, will not give prestige. Only good teachers can build a good department.

Apropos of prestige, a reason frequently given for not appointing the young woman is this: “We do not want to be over-staffed with women.” Over-staffed with women in nearly all departments means from ten to thirty per cent, never as high as fifty per cent. There seems to be a strong and persistent feeling that women weaken a department. However, it seems to me that students are entitled to the male and the female point of view and approach to subjects. When I maintain that women can be as good teachers as men I do not mean that they become men teachers. They retain the valuable assets of their womanhood, feminine sensitivity and whatever else is womanly in the best sense of the word. That is not to say that they are stupidly sentimental or overly emotional. There should be more women teachers in college and more men teachers in high school to maintain a normal balance and a distributed viewpoint. It has always seemed strange to me that although there are many men teachers in women’s colleges there are never or very rarely any women in men’s schools. What is the white and black magic that enables men to teach successfully both male and female students and prevents women from doing the same?

Furthermore, in regard to prestige, one of the methods by which heads of departments force or bring about raises in salaries for teachers is the use of an offer from another institution as a lever. This is not the place to discuss the ethics of this method; for the time being I shall accept it as practical, or at least as practiced. The disadvantage to the young woman here is serious. No matter how good a teacher she has become, unless she has also become famous, and I use the word advisedly, she will not receive offers of professorships or even associate or assistant professorships from other schools. They are still seeking the young men for prestige and for

strengthening their departments. What can she do? She can keep on being a good teacher; she can also write a book. In her case scholarship and production are not only advisable; they are necessary if she is to expect any great degree of academic and financial advancement.

The second of these causes of discrimination against young women in the appointment of college teachers is the poor reputation of some women in college teaching. Men have had difficulties with some women teachers and these difficulties have frequently been annoying—"No more of that." For this I cannot blame them, though I can point out that there is a basis for some of these difficulties, namely frustration. A woman who serves year after year faithfully and more conscientiously than many of her male colleagues may finally become embittered by the lack of recognition of her value; she suffers the permanent slight, the obvious scorn for her old-maidish conscientiousness while the young men rise rapidly, sometimes even with more outside pull than inner push. However, I cannot in faith hold a brief for these women; they constitute a major cause of the difficulty of the younger, more ambitious, more capable women. I shall point out, however, the unfairness of this situation in which otherwise fair-minded men allow their attitude towards all to be based on their experiences with a few. Again the syllogism is sound, but the major premise looks foolish: This old lady is hard to get along with—therefore. . . . I can also point out that the bitterness of even these women would disappear if reason for it were removed. I certainly do not propose that advancement should be given for length of service. Quality is the only sound basis for reward. But how will a young woman have opportunity to prove her quality when she is faced by this blank wall not of her building, this "fact" that some women may have been hard to get along with? It will even be difficult for her to avoid bitterness herself if she is given the same treatment: small return for hard work.

III

The strange differences hanging on the marital status of men and women teachers is still another difficulty in the way of the young

woman. She is not a good risk because she might get married, whereas the young man's chances at a good position are increased if he plans marriage. This may be a real problem in our present society but it is far from insoluble and will disappear entirely when it is more widely understood that a woman as well as a man can have a career and marriage both. It is hardly up to an administrator to tell her that it is impossible for her to have both unless he has moral scruples against married women teaching or is laboring under a false principle of economics. What is this contradictory concept of free enterprise that says a married woman may not work but places no top limit on the earnings of a man? In a society based on the rights of the individual, the choice should be hers. If she has made a career of teaching she should not be asked to give it up if or when she marries. A career-teacher given opportunity and salary equal to a man's will not suddenly leave her job at marriage. In the past women have used work as a stop-gap before marriage because that is just what it was, made so by the employer himself who explained to her that her salary was low because she might leave at any time. Women doctors and lawyers do not give up their practices for marriage or because of marriage and neither would the trained and serious type of college teacher.

There are many problems, based on practices of long standing, but it is not enough to say, "It isn't fair but what can I do?" Democracy itself is built on a far different basis. If the male professor or administrator is not afraid to look closely into his own mind for fear he will see some unjustifiable or ridiculously old-fashioned ideas, then he can do something. If he wants women to go back home, and I will be the first to agree with him that that would lead to his greatest physical comfort, then he should say so clearly and without equivocation. If he believes in the minds and abilities of his women students he can start by being consistent in his own thinking. We have trained the young women; we have encouraged them; let us follow our own precepts.

Surely in this democratic and enlightened society, nurtured by American education, we can arrive at a point where the sex of the teacher applying for a position will be an interesting and even important item of information but will not be the determining and limiting factor it now is.

A COMPARISON OF SALARIES IN THE ACADEMIC PROFESSION WITH THOSE IN THE FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE

By GEORGE W. KYTE

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The economic plight of the academic profession has been widely publicized during the last few months. College presidents, boards of trustees, governors, legislators, journalists, and even some labor leaders have written or made public statements on the subject. At least one article on the economic problems of the profession has appeared recently in a magazine which has wide circulation among the general public.¹ Newspapers throughout the nation have carried numerous articles and editorials about the needs of the teaching profession.² The general public is becoming aware that the profession is hard pressed by economic difficulties. The future of our schools, colleges, and universities depends upon the public's response to the requests for financial support which are being made by the administrative heads of various educational institutions. There is reason to hope that the American public will contribute the funds which are so badly needed for building programs, salary increases, restoration of sabbatical leaves, and more adequate social insurance for members of the teaching profession.

Until the financial needs of the colleges and universities are met, the problems which are plaguing them will become more acute each

¹ Henry F. Pringle, "Who Can Afford to Be a Professor?," *Good Housekeeping* (March, 1947), 26-27, 284-297. Mr. Pringle's conclusions are corroborated by those of Professor Sumner H. Slichter in his article, "What Has Happened to Professors' Salaries Since 1940," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, Winter, 1946, Vol. 32, No. 4, pp. 718-723. See also, Ralph E. Himstead and others, "A Symposium on the Economic Status of the Profession," *Ibid.*, Vol. 32, No. 3, Autumn, 1946, pp. 425-442. For additional references on the same subject, see p. 428 in the "Symposium."

² The *New York Times* has been particularly active in explaining to the American public the problems and needs of the profession, but many other newspapers throughout the United States have allotted considerable space, and the efforts of some of their best writers, to "coverage" of various aspects of the problems faced by public school systems and by the colleges and universities.

day. Colleges and universities are becoming more and more overcrowded, and it is thought by many of their administrators that the crest of the flood has not yet been reached. Professors and instructors are harassed by too many classes, too many students, and too many papers and themes to correct. They are further harassed by housing difficulties and by the rising costs of living.

Because of the accumulated weight of the economic pressures of the postwar era, many college teachers are tempted to leave academic life for employment in private business enterprises or in federal civil service. A considerable number of them have already succumbed to the temptation, and their retirement from teaching has increased the burdens borne by teachers who have remained in the profession.

Few words are needed to explain the attraction which employment in the business world offers to some college teachers. Surely, every member of a college or university faculty knows of the case of Professor Jones, who left his \$4500 teaching job to work for a business firm at \$8000. In any conversation on the subject, a number of similar cases will come to light. Someone will recall Professor Smith, who resigned from a \$4000 job as a teacher of business administration to accept a \$10,000 position as personnel manager at a large manufacturing plant. Other examples will come to light if the conversation on the subject is prolonged, but there is no use to multiply instances of such a well-known occurrence.

Most universities do not possess the resources to match the high salaries which many business firms are willing to pay for skilled specialists or successful administrators. The universities have long since been forced to accept a situation which forces them to give some of their personnel to the business world from time to time. However, they have not yet been conditioned to accept the loss of a considerable proportion of their personnel to various federal civil service agencies. They have faced only a small amount of competition from such agencies in the past except, of course, in wartime. In the present and in the immediate future, however, it is probable that colleges and universities will be hard pressed to prevent various bureaus in the executive branch of the

federal government from spiriting away a fairly large percentage of their faculties.

Many college administrators are complacent about this situation, not realizing fully that some departments of the government are continuing to seek specialists in considerable numbers at salaries much higher than those offered in colleges and universities. Many teachers, particularly those with families to support, have accepted and are accepting positions with the government because of their great need for more income than they were receiving in academic positions.

Those who are unfamiliar with the revised pay scale of the federal civil service may find it difficult to understand how any professor could be lured away from his classrooms to become a bureaucrat. A glance at the table below will help to explain. The table attempts to compare academic salaries with the salaries paid to professional and scientific personnel employed in the federal civil service.¹

Civil Service Grade and Pay ²		Equivalent Academic Rank and Pay ³	
Grade	Minimum Basic Pay Rates	Rank	Rates
P-1	\$2644.80	Instructor	\$2000-3100
P-2	3397.20	Instructor	2000-3100
P-3	4149.60	Asst. Prof.	2600-4100
P-4	4902.00	Asst. Prof.	2600-4100
P-5	5905.20	Assoc. Prof.	3500-5100
P-6	7102.20	Assoc. Prof.	3500-5100
P-7	8179.50	Professor	4000-8500
P-8	9975.00	Professor	4000-8500

¹ The minimum basic pay rates for civil service professional personnel, as shown in the table, are provided by the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1946, effective July 1, 1946. The legal basis for the pay act may be found in Public Law 390-79th Congress, May 24, 1946.

² The "P" ratings which are listed in the table designate the grades held by professional and scientific personnel employed in the federal civil service. "SP" ratings designate certain classes of "subprofessional" employees, and "CAF" ratings indicate the grades of clerical and administrative personnel.

³ The academic salary scale given in the table is not based upon the salaries paid at any one college or university. The range of pay for each rank has been made very wide in order to allow for the considerable differences in pay at different universities.

The table calls for considerable explanation. It must be understood that the academic salary scale which is given above rules out some very low salaries and some very high ones. For example there are some instructors who are paid less than \$2000 per annum, and there are a few who are paid \$4000 or more. There are many teachers of full professorial rank who are paid less than \$4000, and there are others, especially those who hold endowed chairs, who are paid \$10,000 or \$12,000. In addition, it must be understood that professors are able to supplement their incomes by \$600 or \$800 by teaching in summer sessions. It is only fair to add, however, that summer sessions do not always attract enough students to give many professors a chance to supplement their incomes through extra teaching. Ideally, professors should avoid teaching in the summer in order to broaden themselves through travel, study, and research.

The civil service salary scale is based upon employment throughout the year, eight hours a day, five days each week. The civil servant is permitted to take some twenty-seven days of leave during the course of each year, and he is also allowed a certain number of days of sick leave. He benefits from participation in a retirement plan which is more liberal in its provisions than any which is normally available to college teachers. His salary may be raised from time to time, even without promotion from one grade to another, because there is provision in the Federal Employees Pay Act for a series of in-grade pay increments. Thus a P-4, whose minimum salary is \$4902, might hope to be raised to \$5152.80 and then to \$5403.60 after several years of faithful and successful performance of his duties. The liberality of the provisions for in-grade pay increases for the various professional and administrative grades is made clear by the table appended to the article.

It is difficult to make comparisons between academic and civil service salaries for some of the reasons indicated above. There is no exact correspondence between academic ranks and civil service grades. We may risk a few generalizations, however. An intelligent young man, with an M.A. degree, should be able to obtain a P-2 grade (\$3397.20) in one or another of the government bureaus, depending, of course, upon his particular qualifications.

In academic life the same man might well consider himself fortunate if he should receive an appointment to an instructorship at \$2800. It is probable that he would have to accept a much lower salary than \$2800 until he had completed the requirements for his Ph.D. degree.

A man or woman of 28 or 30 years of age, possessing a Ph.D. degree or a law degree, should be able to obtain a P-3 (\$4149.60) or even a P-4 (\$4902) civil service appointment. In a few cases, the young man or woman might be able to obtain as high as a P-5 (\$5905.20) appointment by taking full advantage of the shortage of trained personnel in some professions. Shortage or no shortage, the same person, upon entering the academic profession, could hardly hope to obtain a rank higher than that of assistant professor, and he would be fortunate to receive a salary in excess of \$3500 per annum, plus a possible increment of \$600, more or less, for teaching in the summer. It would take him several years to obtain a promotion to the rank of associate professor, and he would probably have to forego the extra income from summer teaching in order to carry out the research and writing which would be required of him before his promotion was forthcoming. Meanwhile, the civil servant would be in a position to benefit from a series of in-grade salary increases, with hope of obtaining a promotion to a higher grade in a few years.

As the professor and the civil servant climb the ladder of promotions the discrepancy between their salaries remains considerable. A man of 35 or 40 years of age who has reached the rank of associate professor may, at a few universities, receive a salary of \$5600 or more; but, in general, he will receive only about \$4000, or a little more or less, plus occasional extras for summer teaching. As a rule the associate professor's yearly earnings, summer teaching included, would fall somewhere under \$5000. His counterpart in professional or administrative work in the federal civil service might be expected to hold a P-5 rating (\$5905.20) with one or more in-grade salary increases.

It is hard to state what the salary of a full professor is. The author knows of professors who receive only \$3500 per annum, and there are certainly others of professorial rank who earn less. The author knows also of men of the same rank who earn as much as

\$10,000, \$11,400, and even \$12,500 per year. Needless to say, such salaries are rare. It is safe to say that most professors do not receive more than \$5000 pay per annum, or \$6000 including earnings from summer teaching. Men of equal maturity and ability in civil service positions are able to earn considerably higher salaries, up to \$9975 per annum.¹

Appointments to civil service positions have often given men grades and pay rates out of all proportion to their previous academic rank and salary. The author knows of many such instances. A former assistant professor, whose yearly earnings never exceeded \$4500 in academic life, is now earning \$7102.20 as a P-6 researcher in a government bureau in Washington. An associate professor, whose maximum yearly earnings in academic life never exceeded \$5200, is now a P-7 in the federal civil service, earning at least \$8179.50. Many similar examples could be given. It is only fair to add that there are many men who have not enjoyed such remarkable success stories. The author knows of one man, formerly an assistant professor, who holds only a P-3 rating, but, even in his case, his present salary of \$4400 is higher than his maximum yearly income in academic life which amounted to \$3600 including summer teaching.

The college administrator may feel comforted to know that the high tide of government demands for personnel from the academic, world ended just after V-E Day (May 8, 1945). Since that time and especially since the conclusion of the war with Japan, the various government bureaus and agencies have relaxed their pressure for chemists, physicists, mathematicians, geologists, economists, political scientists, historians, and other specialized and professional personnel. A majority of the specialized personnel who were recruited by government agencies from the colleges and universities have long since returned to their respective campuses.

However, the War, Navy, and State Departments are still maintaining, and are likely to continue to maintain, very large-scale research programs. Many chemists, physicists, and mathemati-

¹ The minimum basic pay rate for a P-8 is \$9975 per annum, and he may receive a maximum of \$10,000 after receiving an in-grade pay increase. No specific pay rate is listed for the grade of P-9 or its equivalent administrative grade, CAF-16. They include positions for which Congress, in individual cases, expressly fixes a pay rate in excess of \$9800 a year.

cians have remained with the War and Navy Departments or with private firms which are carrying out research on contract for the military services. Numbers of geographers, economists, historians and political scientists have remained in research programs sponsored by the War, Navy, and State Departments. Large numbers of economists and lawyers have been retained by the government bureaus already mentioned, and by the Departments of Commerce, Labor, and Interior. Active recruiting is still under way for additional personnel for many of the bureaus and agencies which have been named, and, despite all talk of reducing the budget, high ranks and salaries are still being offered as inducement to lure qualified personnel from the various campuses to Washington and other centers of governmental activity.

It is to be emphasized that the advantages which federal civil service offers to the college teacher are almost solely financial. Working conditions in most of the various government bureaus are not as pleasant as those on our college campuses. There are, of course, some very choice government jobs, which offer to the men and women who hold them splendid opportunities to carry out independent research and writing. Such jobs are very rare. In most cases the civil servant finds himself chained to a desk for an eight-hour day, carrying out work under orders and directives issued by his superiors. His freedom is considerably restricted for he is often told what to do, how to do it, and when it must be done. His work is supervised, edited, re-edited, and checked against various directives and style manuals to which it must conform. Individual initiative and ability is discouraged, and sometimes utterly stamped out, by the system under which the civil servant works.

Many professors, steeped in traditions of academic freedom and individual responsibility for research, find it difficult to adapt themselves to the regulations and restrictions of bureaucracy. Given a choice, the majority of them would prefer academic freedom with lower salaries to the restrictions of bureaucracy. Unfortunately, many professors are not in a position to make a choice freely. They are caught under the pressures of living costs, housing difficulties, and similar factors, and many of them simply cannot afford to remain on the campus at their present salaries. Under

the circumstances the salaries offered by various government bureaus will continue to lure significant numbers of college teachers from their campuses for many years to come.

Government competition with the universities for the employment of specialized personnel is an old story to some college and university administrators. Certain departments in a number of our leading universities have long been called upon to lend or give to government agencies some of their finest scholars and administrators. The problem has now become fairly widespread, however, because several departments in the federal government are now equipped with funds and facilities for long-range research programs which call for an enormous supply of specialized and scientific personnel. Many a college will be short-handed this year in several of its departments because of the inroads upon the supply of trained personnel made by the War and Navy departments. So long as international relations remain in their present state of uncertainty, it is likely that the War and Navy departments will continue to obtain from Congress sufficient funds to maintain their present research programs.

The college administrator will be able to compete successfully for personnel only if he succeeds in winning the support of the American public for the training of sufficient numbers of specialists to meet the needs of the government, private industry, and the universities. He will succeed in holding in the universities a fair share of the best of the personnel thus trained only if he succeeds in convincing the public that it must contribute financial support which will enable the universities to pay to their faculties salaries equivalent to those now paid to professional personnel employed by government agencies.

APPENDIX

Basic Pay Rates Provided by the Federal Employees Pay Act of 1946
(Public Law 390—79th Congress, May 24, 1946)

Professional or Administrative Grades		Basic pay rates					
		Minimum	Intermediate (Showing In-Grade Increases)				
P-1	\$2644.80	\$2770.20	\$2,895.60	\$3,021.00	\$3,146.40	\$3271.80
2	CAF- 7	3397.20	3522.60	3,648.00	3,773.40	3,898.80	4024.20
	8	3773.40	3898.80	4,024.20	4,149.60	4,275.00	4400.40
3	9	4149.60	4275.00	4,400.40	4,525.80	4,651.20	4776.60
	10	4525.80	4651.20	4,776.60	4,902.00	5,027.40	5152.80
4	11	4902.00	5,152.80	5,403.60	5,654.40
5	12	5905.20	6,144.60	6,384.00	6,623.40
6	13	7102.20	7,341.60	7,581.00	7,820.40
7	14	8179.50	8,478.75	8,778.00	9,077.25
8	15	9975.00	10,000.00	10,000.00	10,000.00
9	16	(For these grades, Congress fixes a pay rate in excess of \$9800 per year.)					

JUSTICE FOR THE UNMARRIED PROFESSOR

By HUGH J. HAMILTON

Pomona College

Because I believe the basic philosophy of the article, "A Bill of Rights for the Married Professor," by Kerby Neill, published in the Spring, 1946 issue of this *Bulletin*, to be unsound, I wish to offer a few observations on this article for the consideration of the profession.

Although I shall attempt later to disabuse of their misconception those who may believe that bachelors accumulate wealth disproportionate to their needs when they are paid what they earn, this issue is strictly irrelevant. The real issue involved in Professor Neill's plan is ethical. It is ethical because family allotments paid by employers from their operating budgets are *charities donated*, without consent and without satisfaction of acknowledgment, *by unmarried employees*. I submit that there are public laws against a kind of robbery which is hardly more obvious than this, and that there is in morally sound men a wholesome revulsion against the acceptance of alms—perhaps especially in married men.

Recalling that under Professor Neill's illustration of his plan a teacher of the rank of instructor is paid \$2500 plus \$500 for each dependent, let us suppose that the salary budget for ten instructors in an institution using this schedule is \$35,000. Then the unmarried instructor's check (assumed for simplicity to be paid yearly) may properly be written at \$2500 with the annotation, "after deduction of \$1000 as contribution to support of families of married teachers;" and the check of the instructor with two children may properly be written at \$4000 with the annotation, "of which \$500 is contribution from the earnings of single teachers." I venture that no bachelor need fear criticism from his married colleagues if he protests such bookkeeping, indeed that every self-respecting married man will protest even more loudly. The pride with which a man insists on supporting his dependents on

his *earned* income is as fundamental as his right to decide what his charities shall be: whether toys for his colleagues' children or medical supplies for babies in India or contributions to the Braille Institute. I urge those who may fancy some value in Professor Neill's plan to imagine themselves working under it and receiving checks annotated as suggested.

If the married man whose salary is the same as that of his bachelor friend must apply a larger portion of it to his budget, he will, I believe, generally accept the fact without even thinking about it. If he does, he will regard his family as a better investment than his colleague's bank account; he knows that in his late years he may depend on his children's special favors, occasional hospitality, even complete support; he knows that the perennial bachelor in those same years must buy his social life at no discount, pay the current rent for his solitary room, and either hospitalize himself or enter the charity ward for his last illness.

But does the bachelor indeed accumulate enough money to enjoy a financial advantage over the family man upon retirement? The single teacher who gives to his institution the time which he should give must pay bills for laundering and mending, house-cleaning, at least a dozen meals per week in restaurants, most of his entertaining in public places, and an income tax roughly \$100 greater per dependent than the married professor's. In effect, the man who takes unto himself a wife contracts to hire a companion, a social secretary, a hostess, a laundress, a scrub-woman, and a dietitian and cook, all for the price of supporting her, less the income tax exemption.

Professor Neill's plan fails, moreover, to make allowance for private sources of income, such as inheritances. Since his philosophy is evidently, "from each according to his ability, to each according to his needs," he is bound to discount his claims by the values of private resources. For example, a married instructor with no children should *pay his college* \$2000 per year if he has an independent \$5000 income. Similar adjustments should be made when the wife works for a salary; a childless instructor whose wife earns \$2500 should be hired for exactly \$500. Again, no provision is made for the single teacher who supports an ailing relative or an orphan of the war. Perhaps Professor Neill ignores these points because the private holdings and the private commitments of an

employee are not the assets nor the responsibilities of the employer. Granted! But what is a more wilfully assumed responsibility than that of heading a family? (And what more ignobly discharged if thrown into the lap of someone else?)

I repeat that the fundamental objection to the "Bill of Rights" is that it is ethically unsound: that it requires, without acknowledgment, that the unmarried professor shall contribute a part of his earned salary to the married professor in excess of that professor's earned salary. Under its operation no discerning and honorable married professor could look his unmarried colleague in the eye.

I propose for consideration of the Council that the American Association of University Professors (1) take an unequivocal stand against salary differentials within any institution which are based solely on marital status or number of dependents; (2) establish the policy of formally censuring the administration of each institution within which such differentials are known to exist.

THREE CASE HISTORIES IN COLLEGE BUDGETING

By ALBERT H. IMLAH

Tufts College

The economists' dictum that wages rise more slowly than the cost of living has been brought home to many with painful force during the past six years. Probably no employed class has suffered more from the wage lag than have the teachers throughout the land. Their salaries, fixed months in advance of the contract year and being in any case low, had lost much of their purchasing power before the checks began to arrive. College and university teachers have not been immune from these trends. In some cases they may have suffered a little less severely than have teachers in the public school system, thanks to a little more opportunity to supplement salaries in summer schools and with extra courses. But, with underpay and overwork, there is little doubt that the profession has gone downhill in the past six years and that the quality of instruction has deteriorated in consequence. Moreover, ability to attract suitable recruits in adequate numbers has been seriously impaired. The climb back, unless cost of living falls as rapidly and almost as far as it rose—which is improbable—will be much slower than the descent.

What is most distressing about this decline is that, in some of the endowed colleges at least, it would seem to have been far greater than was necessary. Tests made with three sample colleges show that the two main sources of revenue, tuition fees and endowment income, rose in very close accord with and even exceeding costs of living. In each case the means for moderate improvements in faculty salaries were available had other items of expenditure been reasonably well controlled.

Tuition income is usually the major source of college revenue. In each of the sample cases it rose more rapidly than the cost of

living. This was the result of three simultaneous procedures. First, increasing the rates charged—possible without undue hardship in a society fully employed and enjoying an unprecedentedly high income. Second, reducing the amount of scholarship aid granted to students out of general funds. This raises the net yield. It is, and will be, a widespread practice while the G. I. Bill is in operation. Third, enrolling a larger number of fee-paying students. This practice is genuinely effective in increasing usable income, however, only when three conditions are favorable: (1) facilities must afford a margin for more efficient utilization without expensive plant additions or remodeling; (2) overhead costs must be carefully controlled; and (3) tuition fees must cover the cost of instruction *per* student to permit the additions to staff needed if quality of instruction is not to deteriorate from overloading the faculty. In the three cases studied the tuition rates more than covered instructional costs but the teaching staff was not expanded in proportion to the increases in enrollment.

Then there is a considerable income from endowment funds, the amount varying, of course, from institution to institution. There is a widespread impression that this has been a relatively inflexible and even, with declining bond interest rates, a diminishing source of revenue. This idea is a legacy from depression days and has not been generally true in recent years, partly because new endowment capital has flowed in fairly steadily though less spectacularly than in the lavish twenties, partly because many endowed institutions have departed from past practice and shifted a considerable part of their investment funds into preferred and common stocks. Dividend rates have been extremely good throughout the war period. In two cases out of three endowment income rose more rapidly than living costs for the academic year 1945-46.

A few explanations are necessary with respect to the institutions selected for examination. Women's colleges were chosen in order to avoid the complicated statistical adjustments needed for the men's colleges to carry them through the war years. These particular colleges were not chosen for the purpose of demonstrating these trends. Rather the writer discovered the trends by preparing the tables which follow. Two are relatively high cost institutions where moderate expansion of enrollment occurred.

One is a moderate cost institution with a very considerable increase in enrollment and it illustrates what can happen (not necessarily what always happens) when this occurs. All three increased tuition rates during the period covered, and all three have announced further increases effective September 1, 1947.

Certain points should be borne in mind in reading and interpreting the following data. "Total Educational Expenditure" includes administration and maintenance as well as instruction and other expense connected with educational functioning. It excludes dormitories, dining halls and other similar auxiliary activities except when deficits are incurred and charged to general expenditure. It is not "total income." One of the cases showed a very substantial surplus in each of the last four years of the series after covering "total educational expenditure." Notice, too, that "endowment income allocated to current expenses" is not total income from endowments. In all cases some income was retained for future use or added to capital. This accounts for the wide fluctuations in Case III especially. The years 1935-39 are used as base years, not because expenditures for these years were tested and found to be in good balance, but simply to compare with the cost of living index based on these pre-war years. The index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics is used and is adjusted to correspond with the lapping academic budget years. (See Table 1.)

In each case the total educational expenditure increased more rapidly than did instructional salaries and expenses. In other words the proportions of total expenditure devoted to instruction declined. In each case net tuition and allocated endowment income rose more rapidly in percentage terms than did total educational expenditure, and much more rapidly than instructional salaries and expense. In all cases net tuition income rose even more rapidly than the cost of living index by 1946, as did endowment income in two cases. It will be of interest, and very relevant, to add that maintenance of grounds and buildings out of current income (excluding repairs made from reserve funds) rose by 65%, 34%, and 73%, respectively. In one case it was held to the rate of rise in the general cost of living. In two cases it about doubled that rate. Administrative expenditure rose 92%, 24%,

TABLE 1

	Total Educa- tional Expendi- ture	Instructional Salaries and Expense		Net Tuition In- come (<i>i. e.</i> , After Deducting Unendowed Scholarships)		Endowment In- come Allocated to Current Expenses		Cost of Living, Index 1935-39 100
	Per Cent of 1935-39	Per Cent of 1935-39	Per Cent of Total Expendi- ture	Per Cent of 1935-39	Per Cent of Total Expendi- ture	Per Cent of 1935-39	Per Cent of Total Expendi- ture	
Case I								
1935-36	100	99	49	99	54	99	26	99
36-37	98.5	99	50	99	55	99	27	101
37-38	99.5	100	50	100	55	100	26	102
38-39	102	102	49	102	54	102	26	100
1939-40	105	102	48	107	55	103	25	100
40-41	108	103	47	106	53	109	26	103
41-42	111	106	47	107	52	109	26	111
42-43	110	100	44	106	52	110	26	120
1943-44	102	98	46	129	67	110	27	125
44-45	110	97	41	135	63	115	26	126
45-46	115	106	43	136	60	125	27	134
Case II								
1935-36	98	98	45	94	45	104	18	99
36-37	99	98	45	101	48	107	19	101
37-38	101	102	45	102	47	100	17	102
38-39	102	102	45	103	47	89	15	100
1939-40	101	103	46	111	51	97	17	100
40-41	110	111	45	124	52	99	15	103
41-42	108	110	46	122	52	114	18	111
42-43	114	114	45	124	51	109	16	120
1943-44	123	118	43	127	48	113	16	125
44-45	122	118	43	143	54	140	22	127
45-46	127	116	43	141	52	151	20	134
Case III								
1935-36	98	102	57	98	58	108	28	99
36-37	103	104	55	101	57	107	27	101
37-38	101	100	54	102	58	100	26	102
38-39	98	94	52	99	59	85	22	100
1939-40	100	97	53	101	58	93	24	100
40-41	103	91	48	108	60	93	24	103
41-42	117	100	47	120	59	127	28	111
42-43	128	113	51	153	73	145	31	120
1943-44	130	117	50	149	66	183	36	125
44-45	162	140	48	163	60	214	35	127
45-46	163	126	44	213	79	180	29	134

and 100%, respectively. In one case only was it well controlled, though not quite as well as instructional salaries and expense.

II

The preceding data deal with the relationships of dollar totals. Revealing though they are, they leave out of account what is, in education at least, a most important, indeed the critical figure—expenditure *per* student. The total volume of instructional salaries cannot supply a satisfactory test of the adequacy of instructional finance unless correlated with the numbers of students involved. Reducing expenditures to a student unit basis measures these proportions and therefore tests instructional trends as well as any dollar formula can. Similarly, changes in endowment or net tuition income take on full meaning only when put on a student unit basis. If numbers of students remained constant in each institution year after year, dollar totals might suffice to tell the financial story. Actually, numbers fluctuate a good deal. In these colleges they were, by 1945-46, 6%, 11%, and 64% above the 1935-39 levels. Restating the series in terms of student-unit expenditures and income we get a much clearer picture of what was allowed to transpire in these schools. (See Table 2.)

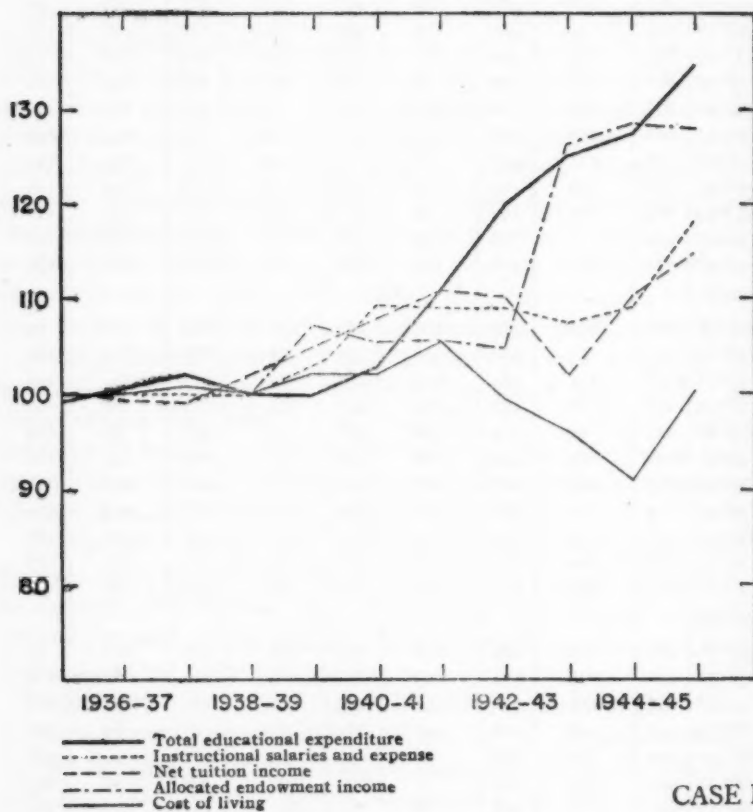
Graphs will show at a glance the relationships between the percentage items in Table 2. The lines show the changes in the percentage of each of these classes of income and expenditure *per* student, as well as the cost of living index, all on the same base years, 1935-39. (See pp. 322-324.)

Two further items should again be added for fuller perspective. Maintenance of grounds and buildings out of current funds increased for 1945-46 on a *per* student basis, by 56%, 20%, and 5% over 1935-39. Administrative expenses rose by 81%, 12%, and 21%. In the first case the increases in these two items neatly absorbed the increase in income. Under these circumstances there was no margin for increases in instructional salaries over 1935-39 levels. In the second case these items were better controlled. They absorbed 39% of the increased income, leaving a margin which allowed some increase in instructional expenditure. It is the only instance where there was some real improvement in

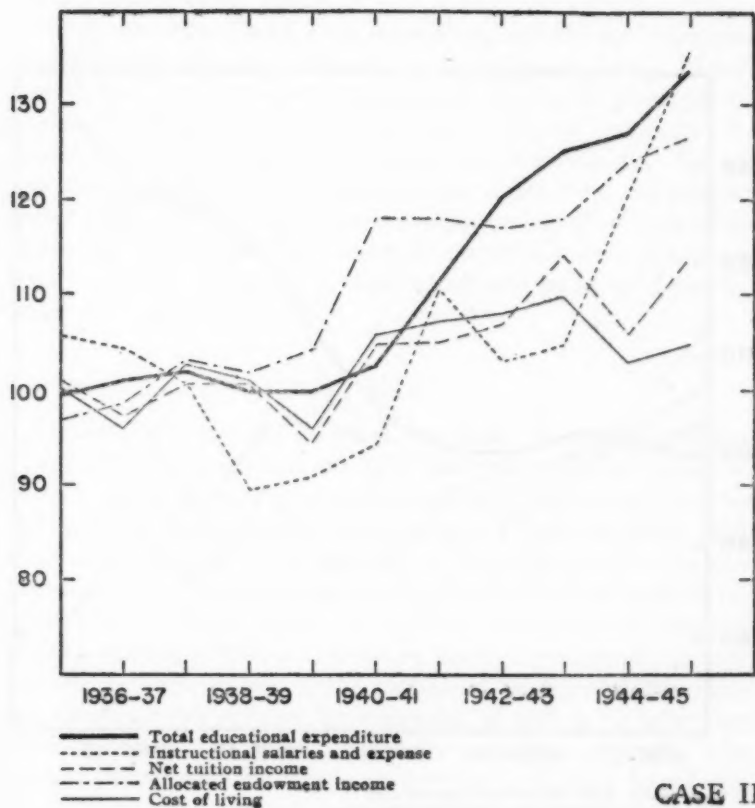
TABLE 2

	Total Educational Expenditure per Student		Instructional Salaries and Expense per Student		Net Tuition Income (After Deducting Unendowed Scholarships) per Student		Endowment Income Allocated to Current Expense per Student		Cost of Living, Index 1935-39
	Dol-lars	Per Cent of 1935-39	Dol-lars	Per Cent of 1935-39	Dol-lars	Per Cent of 1935-39	Dol-lars	Per Cent of 1935-39	1935-39 100
Case I									
1935-36	848	100	415	99	457	100	220	100	99
36-37	834	99	416	100	460	100	220	100	101
37-38	842	99	420	101	459	100	221	100	102
38-39	862	102	419	100	461	100	222	100	100
1939-40	893	105	426	102	491	107	227	103	100
40-41	911	108	428	102	487	106	241	109	103
41-42	938	111	442	106	489	106	241	109	111
42-43	932	110	414	99	484	105	242	109	120
1943-44	863	102	399	96	577	126	236	107	125
44-45	929	110	382	91	586	128	241	109	127
45-46	977	115	416	100	588	128	261	118	134
Case II									
1935-36	1009	101	450	100	454	97	183	106	99
36-37	971	97	433	96	461	98.5	180	104	101
37-38	1018	101	464	103	481	103	175	101	102
38-39	1017	101	457	101	475	101.5	153	89	100
1939-40	947	94	434	96	486	104	157	91	100
40-41	1052	105	476	106	552	118	162	94	103
41-42	1053	105	483	107	552	118	191	110	111
42-43	1079	107	487	108	549	117	178	103	120
1943-44	1148	114	494	110	553	118	181	105	125
44-45	1068	106	465	103	581	124	209	121	127
45-46	1149	114	474	105	593	127	235	136	134
Case III									
1935-36	468	103	264	107	270	103	133	113	99
36-37	460	101	254	103	261	100	124	106	101
37-38	451	100	242	98	262	100	115	98	102
38-39	433	96	226	92	254	97	97	83	100
1939-40	444	98	236	96	259	99	107	91	100
40-41	447	99	216	88	270	103	105	90	103
41-42	465	103	217	88	275	105	131	112	111
42-43	464	102	236	96	339	129	143	122	120
73*									
1943-44	417	92	206	84	335	128	144	123	125
109*									
44-45	462	102	224	91	331	126	154	131	127
72*									
45-46	460	101	201	82	392	149	128	109	134
89*									

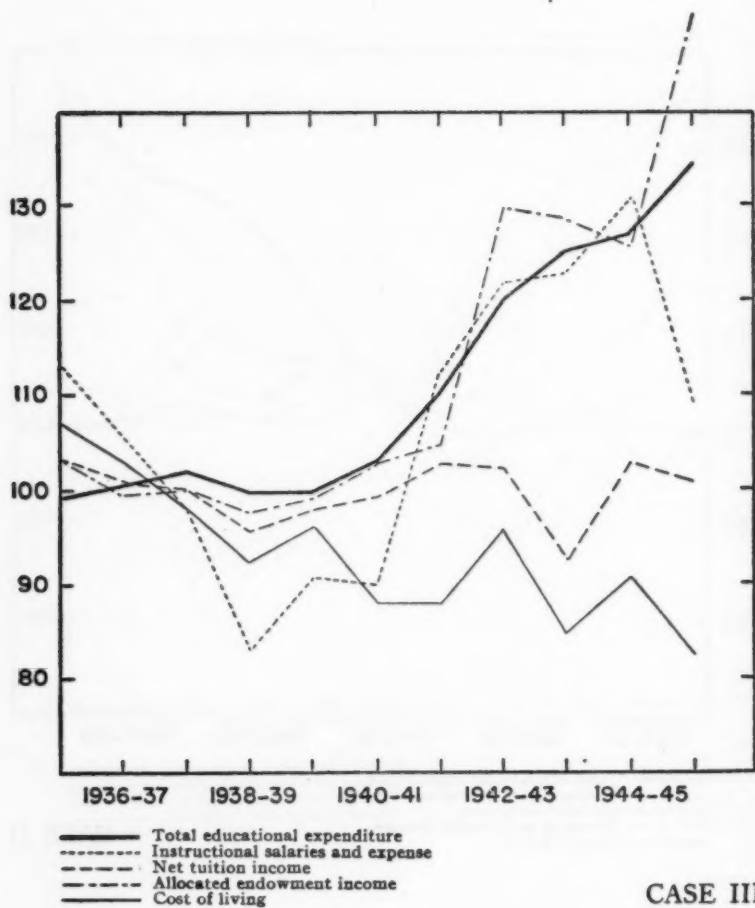
* Surplus following increases in tuition rates and in numbers of students.



CASE I



CASE II



instructional salaries when measured on a *per* student basis. In the third case, where the increase in totals was very high, they were well controlled when measured on a *per* student basis. However, instructional expenditure *per* student fell appreciably. Substantial money surpluses were produced, but with serious, if less visible, instructional deficits.

What the writer found most astonishing was the responsiveness of tuition and endowment income, measured *per* student. In each case it more than covered the increase in total educational expenditure *per* student, and should have allowed the means for substantial improvement in the instructional situation. The sad and alarming thing is that in every case instruction, the primary *raison d'être* of the college, drew a smaller and smaller share of the expanding income and that other commitments were established with respect to enhanced incomes which will be hard, if not impossible, to reduce.

III

How can we account for these trends in the sample colleges? One might suppose, from the fact that other charges gained so much larger a share of increased income than did instruction, that college administrators have come to place a higher value on other elements—administration, grounds, and buildings—than on education *per se*. Possibly there is some slight element of truth in this assumption. These things can be very impressive to students, alumni, general public, and even, at times, to underpaid or overworked faculty. Perhaps the personnel in these departments has exerted more pressure for expansion as well as for salary and wage increases. In some colleges the maintenance staffs have formed unions and effectively undertaken collective bargaining. As a group they are rather more articulate concerning money matters than are college professors, and in these days when the large size of our colleges and growing specialization have established the administrators as a class apart (with ever-growing class consciousness) they are possibly more likely to receive a sympathetic hearing as “practical people” than are members of the instructional staff. Yet these trends are probably not a result of

conscious planning or studied purpose, but rather the consequence of drift, of accommodation to claims and pressures one by one without much analysis of the relationships of the parts to the whole. The fact that many college presidents (including the three in question) still lay emphasis on shrinking returns from endowment funds suggests that a measure of ignorance is an element in the situation. Colleges have become big business institutions, many with budgets running into seven figures and a few into eight but without much financial analysis or business planning.

When we come down to it, there is very little in our system of college and university government to insure that plans and budgets be formed on the basis of well-integrated consideration of all phases of institutional life. It is in some respects a curious form of government for our institutions of higher education to have in the midst of our democratic society. It offers very few working analogies to the democratic method. On paper faculties control admission of students, curriculum, and degree requirements but without any "power of the purse" to make legislation effective, without control over those who administer the rules, and usually without any organized consultation on high policy matters. There the purse is all powerful. Appointments, promotions, and salaries of faculty members are determined by the administrators. The latter are, in turn, responsible to a disinterested board whose members generously serve with public-spirited, sentimental, or philanthropic motivations but without being answerable in their turn to any particular constituency. Meeting infrequently, with much business to cover in a short space of time, they can give little more than routine attention to the many important subjects which pass in review before them. The result is that college administrators, with a reasonable measure of prudence and of tact towards members of the board, rule the college. The larger the college, the more intricate its affairs, the more complete the administrative control.

If there is any analogy to college government in our American society, it is to be found in the business corporation. It too has its specialized managerial class, which, though supervised by a board of directors, tends in fact to be in control. Management and board of directors are, however, unlike college administration, answerable to a fairly definite constituency, the stockholders.

But this difference is probably not in itself the important one. For, though animated by their investment in the company, the scattered domiciles of the stockholders, the diffusion of their "interests," the lack of easy means for communication and organization, and the routine of proxies give them a somewhat disembodied existence not wholly dissimilar in effect to that of the broad and generalized constituency of the college board. Yet a difference does exist, mainly because, the stock being negotiable and offering an investment opportunity, a vast number of auxiliary agencies and services have sprung up to meet the needs of current and prospective investors. The stock exchanges with their rules and regulations and quotations, statistical and analytical agencies, brokerage firms, investment counsellors, business and investment journals, and, more recently, the Security Exchange Commission, to name only a few, all serve to subject company affairs to a kind, a volume, and a variety of scrutiny and of stimulus almost wholly lacking for college administration.

Perhaps it is this lack of scrutiny and stimulus which accounts for the marked difference which exists between annual reports of college treasurers and of business corporations. Though working in a field where an increasing variety of information must be coordinated if supervisory judgment is to be of much value, college administrations and boards are supplied with much less usable information than the boards or the stockholders of established and reputable corporations. In only two out of about three dozen treasurers' reports examined by the writer was the statement arranged to permit easy comparison of the various categories of income and expense for as much as two years (the current with the preceding year) and in one of these the breakdown was too slight to have much significance.¹ College boards are supplied with little basis for judgment as to what the trends are within the institution for which they have assumed the final responsibility. Unless individual members preserve their reports, and do a good deal of private checking and correlating with other data, they are in no position to discuss or distinguish between what is good or

¹One other, a state university, formerly printed very adequate ten-year comparisons with elaborate breakdown but dropped the practice in 1940 in favor of similar breakdown for the current year only. In no case was there any correlation of income or expenditures with numbers of students.

bad policy or necessary adaptation to ineluctable facts. Most board members are busy persons and serve without fees. Few can be expected to undertake such a chore, which if done by the Treasurer's office could be done for all at little extra expense. Yet if anything like full value is to be derived from the system of supervisory boards whose members are drawn from the active professions in a functioning society—a system which is not without merit in theory—it must somehow be brought into well-balanced operation. Company reports, replete with two- five- or even ten-year tables and graphs, for the correlation of significant matters put the reports of our institutions of higher education to shame. Company administrators and boards are in a far better position to know what they are doing.

IV

How does this bear on the economic status of the profession, and what can be done about it? Professor Slichter has shown by the results of his questionnaire that many colleges and universities are now making salary adjustments for instructional staffs.¹ The combined effects of teacher shortages and general outcry are producing some remedial efforts. But are they adequate or widespread enough? The ground lost in five years can scarcely be recovered in a single year, especially in the face of other commitments that have been incurred in the lax interval. It will require sustained and systematic effort over a period of years, careful planning and budgeting with due thought for the ends to be achieved. And it is clear that a substantial lift in salary schedules is not alone enough. The proportions of faculty to students must be restored to good balance—an almost universal problem with the swollen enrollments of these postwar years.

To insure the steady effort and planning required, we probably need to develop for college government some counterpart for the auxiliary forces outlined above which help to make the business corporation method work. Unfortunately, there is no profit motive here to call such agencies spontaneously into being as in

¹ Sumner H. Slichter, "What Has Happened to Professors' Salaries Since 1940," American Association of University Professors, *Bulletin*, Winter, 1946, Vol. 32, No. 4, pp. 718-723.

the business world. It may be that this is a fatal difference and that the only effective solution is a radical reorganization of our system of college government. But there are at least three different types of agencies which, if they set themselves to it, could supply some of the missing stimulus and exercise a considerable remedial influence. For adequate and balanced results the attention of all three is needed.

One is such an organization as the Association of American Colleges. It is in essence an association of administrators, organized for the better advancement of their common interests. Let it define the proper objectives of college reports, the rôle these should play in encouraging informed policy development and control. It might emulate some of the business guilds by offering an award each year for the most informative annual report.

The second is such an organization as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The work it could do in this sphere would be as beneficial to the advancement of teaching as the researches and experiments it has supported in teaching techniques and course curricula. Moreover, the economic welfare of the teaching profession was a subject of considerable concern to the founder. Let it set up a continuous service to analyze and relate the relevant data for samples of each type of institution in each of the main regions of the country. The cooperation of a sufficient number of representative colleges would be needed. What they might fear most at the outset would be publicity for the results. If copies of the completed analyses were supplied to the administration and boards of each institution examined, then published together, in order to exemplify the method and its usefulness for the benefit of other colleges and universities, but without identifying the institutions involved, every need and value would be amply served and cooperation could not reasonably be refused. With such a stimulus most colleges would soon develop more adequately their own analyses as an essential prerequisite to policy making. Furthermore, the development of such a service should be of considerable value to the Foundation itself in determining the appropriateness of its grants-in-aid of various educational projects.

The third agency could appropriately be the Chapters of the

American Association of University Professors. Chapters, because their members are familiar with local variables, can do the work with their own talent without great expense. For the central office of the Association to undertake the task effectively would require a considerable expenditure for a staff of statisticians and field workers. Of course, it would be preferable that the analytical agency be one that is regarded as wholly disinterested, such as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. If such an organization does not undertake the task, however, the Association might properly consider the advisability of expanding the activity of its central office for this purpose. In the meantime the Chapters of the Association can, by the preparation of relevant data for the administrative officers and boards of their own institutions and by the exchange of information with other Chapters, accomplish much. The truth of this is attested by a rapidly multiplying number of instances of results achieved by Chapter action. Possibly Chapters could cooperate through regional committees to conduct regional studies if other agencies fail to undertake this task.

The Chapters of the Association do not, of course, constitute wholly disinterested groups for such a study. But on the local level this will scarcely be a danger. No groups are more devoted to the welfare of their respective institutions or of education in general than are the Chapters of the Association. The members of these groups are representative of a profession in which the disciplines of objectivity are rigorous and the habits of appealing to reason by fair and exact handling of facts firmly formed and established. It is hoped, therefore, that each Chapter of the Association will act on the suggestion of the General Secretary of the Association, made in the "Symposium on the Economic Status of the Profession" in the Autumn, 1946 issue of the Association's *Bulletin*, and set up a Committee of competent members to study the record, the means and the needs of its institution over a period of years, as well as the records of some comparable institutions of the region. Let the Committee of each Chapter report to the Chapter, subjecting its findings and conclusions to chapter discussion before presenting them, without undue publicity, to the president—with an ample number of copies to supply each member

of the board and with graphs to correlate the data and to promote quick perception of its meaning. With such procedures one need not fear that the chapter will become a mere pressure group in any unworthy or selfish sense. On the contrary, professors will better understand their college and the problems of its administration.

Some chapters may encounter resistance from administrators at first. The latter may fear that their prerogatives of management are being infringed, their record criticized, or a pet building project¹ undermined by the closer assessment of means in relation to ends. But if the matter is approached as one of contributing to the basis for decisions without challenge of the power to make the final decisions, and if the good of the institution is kept clearly and explicitly in the foreground as the prime objective, intelligent administrators with the genuine interest of their college at heart cannot but welcome this cooperation. And if the practice is steadily continued year after year, much long-run good may evolve for college government. Administrators and professors may well find in their closer examination of ends and means a sound basis for much further collaboration, to the benefit of themselves and of higher education.

¹ Building projects are blossoming everywhere, and in many cases without adequate funds for upkeep. They, too, constitute new commitments and will have to be fed from general income.

THE VISITING PROFESSOR AND INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING¹

By FRANCIS J. COLLIGAN

Department of State

Plans and projects for lasting peace among the nations besiege us on all sides. A recent suggestion which may have caught the professorial eye is that of Mr. Norman Corwin. After his trip around the world to note the progress or lack of progress towards One World, Mr. Corwin reported: "I believe all nations should acknowledge more readily the principle of cultural exchange. . . . Cultural exchange takes on its greatest meaning and value in cases where the respective peoples knowing too little of each other have a mutual suspicion and apprehension."²

Cultural exchange is no new thing to the typical American scholar. Like all scholars, he is well acquainted with professional relations across national boundaries. Numerous journals report the fruits of his research to colleagues scattered far and wide in many lands and bring him, in return, the data of those colleagues to add to his own. New devices, like microphotography, bring the data of these co-workers of his still closer. Some of his professional societies are affiliated with similar groups in other countries and with such specialized organizations and agencies as the International Union of Academies, the International Council of Scientific Unions, and the Liaison Committee for International Education. These contacts and the studies which they further are non-national by their very nature, whether they be humanistic, scientific, or sociological.

For similar reasons professors have always been travelers. In every generation, like the wandering scholars of the ages when universities were young, they have been the principal agents for the ex-

¹ An adaptation of an address presented at the Thirty-third Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors, February 22, 1947, Boston, Massachusetts.

² "One World Revisited," published in Winter, 1947 issue of *Common Ground*.

change of knowledge over wide areas of the world. Modern methods of communication supplement but do not supplant them. A century ago, the "rediscovery of Europe" by the United States was marked by a steady stream of American scholars to European universities. Since the first World War, the rediscovery of the United States by Europe has started to reverse the flow. Foreign professors, as well as students, have visited the United States in ever-increasing numbers, aided by many institutions, foundations, and agencies. The Institute of International Education, for example, has facilitated the contacts of some 450 scholars and established the "visiting professorship plan" to encourage foreign professors to lecture in as many of our universities as possible. Since 1919 it has arranged the travel of more than 400 foreign scholars, educators and men and women of affairs, and, in addition, 20 direct professorial exchanges. It has also assisted hundreds of American professors with educational trips abroad. Today such interchanges have taken on special significance in view not only of their volume but also of their significance for the foreign relations of the United States.

Throughout our history, many professors have taken an active part in the conduct of our foreign affairs. James Russell Lowell retained his professorship at Harvard University while serving as Minister to Great Britain and to Spain. Recently Mr. J. Leighton Stuart left the American university world in China to represent the United States before the government of that country. In the years that have elapsed between Lowell's day and ours, other university teachers have served our country in similar capacities. Especially in late years, and notably during World War II, many scholars have served in the Department of State, other related government agencies, and our foreign service missions abroad.

In general, these professors have represented a limited number of fields directly connected with the conduct of our foreign relations in the traditional sense. Today, however, professors and other scholars in every field from aesthetics to zoology may look forward to new opportunities to participate actively in international cultural interchange, opportunities which, at the same time, underscore the importance of cultural interchange in the conduct of our foreign relations.

It is from this point of view that the Department of State, for several years, has been systematically interested in international cultural relations. The range and scope of that interest is suggested by our programs of scientific and cultural cooperation with Latin America, China, and the Near East, by the Fulbright Act, and by American participation in UNESCO. The rôle that the American professor can play in such programs and the contribution that he can make thereby to international friendship may be briefly indicated by the part that he has played in some of them in recent years.

II

The active encouragement of professorial exchanges by our Government dates from 1936 when the United States, at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, in Buenos Aires, proposed a convention for the promotion of cultural relations among the American republics. For almost a century American professors and research workers had maintained more or less continuous contact with their colleagues in other countries, and foundations and universities in the United States had done everything possible to further this. The United States felt, however, that there was a definite need to broaden such relationships, especially in support of the Good Neighbor Policy, and, upon ratification of the Convention, it took steps to carry out, among other programs, one for the interchange of professors.

The detailed story of those interchanges must be told elsewhere. Suffice it to say that procedures suggested by the Convention were simplified and that the program was supplemented financially by the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, through the Committee on Artistic and Intellectual Cooperation, and by the Department of State under the Act of Cooperation with the Other American Republics, which was passed in 1939. Meanwhile, emergency funds of the President made it possible for the Department during the War to start a similar but limited program of cultural cooperation with China and the Near East. This program, in so far as financial grants-in-aid are concerned, was terminated on June 30, 1946. The Department's program with the other American republics is still in operation.

The most obvious feature of these programs has been the number of professorial projects which they have made possible. To mention the smaller program first, between 1943 and 1946, under the President's Emergency Fund, the Department arranged for the visits to the United States of twenty-four Chinese university professors. Each of these spent one year here, observing, studying, conducting research, and exchanging information, views and plans with his American colleagues. In 1945 and 1946 the Department facilitated the research studies of fourteen additional Chinese scholars. Again, during 1946, it provided travel expenses for sixteen professors and secondary teachers to the Near East and for five professors from that area to the United States. Projects with the other American republics have, of course, been much more numerous. Between 1940 and July 1, 1946, in addition to the 30 visiting professors who were sponsored by the Committee on Intellectual and Artistic Cooperation, 157 North Americans and Latin Americans received grants-in-aid to enable them to accept invitations as visiting professors.

If these programs have increased considerably the number of such lectureships and professorships, they have also broadened their range in terms of the age and academic rank of the recipients and the institutions which they have represented. For the Latin American program, for example, American professors have been drawn from 49 institutions in 25 states scattered literally from Maine to California. They have been chosen in terms of the specific needs and interests of the host institutions in the other countries. The number of younger men so selected, while not disproportionate, has been significant. It indicates that visiting lectureships and academic exchanges may well include not only men of mature years and established reputations but also the young and promising.

The fields of specialization which these men have represented are also widely diversified. American literature and history, English language, music, art, medicine, dentistry, engineering, agriculture, mathematics, chemistry, physics, economics, and psychology—these subjects, among others, indicate not only the breadth of interest in American intellectual life on the part of other countries but also the extensive opportunities which are open to

our educators. If there has been a certain emphasis upon English language, technology, and the sciences and professions concerned with health, there is all the more reason for encouraging projects in other fields to present to other countries a true and balanced picture of American intellectual life. Precisely to aid in achieving that balance, at least five American specialists during the present fiscal year are traveling to nine countries in Latin America: Mr. Aaron Copeland, the composer; Mr. Arthur S. Aiton of the History Department of the University of Michigan; Mr. Robert C. Caldwell, Dean of the School of Humanities of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Mr. Kenneth Conant of the School of Architecture of Harvard University; and Mr. Philip Powell of the History Department of Northwestern University. All these men will give series of lectures in American cultural institutes (another impressive project supported by the Department during the past few years) where nationals of the countries frequently turn for information and contact with Americans and American life.

Still another indication of the breadth of these programs is the wide variety of activity which the travelers have undertaken. While most of them have been attached to specific institutions in foreign areas, their extra-curricular activities have been quite varied. They have made the acquaintance of numerous scholars, intellectuals, and leaders of thought and opinion. They have attended numerous meetings and conferences. They have gathered much information, both professional and general, about the areas which they have visited. If they have listened, they have also lectured—not only in the classroom, but also to general audiences both “live” and on the air. They have acted as consultants to university officials and to Ministers of Education; they have published articles, syllabi, and textbooks. Mr. M. Lyle Spencer, Dean of the School of Journalism at Syracuse University, for example, as visiting professor at the American University at Cairo last year, aided in reorganizing the curriculum in journalism and was consulted by newspaper men and publishers regarding American newspaper equipment and journalistic practices. Mr. Roderick D. Matthews of the School of Education of the University of Pennsylvania directed educational surveys in the Near East in cooperation with the American Council on Education, the Baghdad

Higher Teachers College, the American University at Cairo and the Egyptian Ministry of Education. Mr. Charles Dobbelt, of the School of Engineering of Stanford University, helped develop the curriculum of the School of Petroleum Geology of the University of Caracas, Venezuela, introducing such innovations as the unit-credit system.

Especially significant, however, has been the increasing demand in all these foreign areas for the obvious common denominator among academic scholars, namely, systematic teaching. During the fiscal year 1946, for example, 20 out of 63 American professors accepted full-year appointments to conduct courses in the regular sessions of Latin American universities.

III

All these activities reflect certain general policies for the administration of these projects, policies which, we may presume, will also influence future programs. In the first place, every attempt has been made to encourage the visits of foreign professors to the United States and thus to make such interchange truly reciprocal. Direct post-for-post, simultaneous exchanges are, of course, highly desirable, but they are not always easy to arrange. Differences in academic organization, curricula, and resources, in legal and administrative procedures and in general political and economic conditions, restrict this kind of literal exchange and also, to some extent, offset the general balance which should ideally be maintained. Nonetheless, the principle has always been kept in view and the balance is frequently restored by other types of projects—the exchange of students, for example. Without such a principle, the phrase “cultural exchange” would be meaningless.

Again, these projects have been thoroughly cooperative as between the peoples, institutions, and governments of the United States and of the other countries concerned. Requests for visiting American professors are initiated by the universities abroad where they will serve, and the final selection of such visitors rests with them. Institutions abroad likewise contribute as much as possible to the financial support of the visitors, usually salaries equivalent to those paid to their own teachers of similar academic rank. Such

cooperation characterizes every phase of such projects. There is, therefore, no reason to fear that the active encouragement of professorial missions by our Government may be interpreted as "cultural imperialism."

The Department's relations with American institutions and professional organizations have been similarly cooperative. Despite the shortage of personnel and the surplus of students, our universities have been very willing to grant leaves of absence to their own professors for such projects. Professional organizations have cooperated with the Department in searching for likely candidates and in recommending them to interested institutions abroad. American professors have worked with the Department, serving as advisers and consultants and as cultural officers overseas. Such cooperation reflects an active support and lively interest, which makes these projects what they are intended to be—cogent examples of relations not between governments but between peoples.

For the same reason, the Department's part in these interchanges is distinctly supplementary. Its principal concern is to facilitate and expedite projects which have been initiated and sponsored by academic institutions and professional organizations and to help overcome the obstacles that impede or retard them. It is especially interested in projects with areas of the world where there have been few exchanges or none at all. It is interested also in projects in certain fields—the teaching of the English language to foreigners, for example—which need broader support than other organizations and institutions have been able to give them. Financial grants-in-aid simply supplement, where necessary, funds from such other sources as the home and host institutions and the philanthropic foundations. They are primarily limited to equalizing the differences in the rates of exchange, purchasing power, and salary standards. Upon request, the Department attempts to obtain information regarding visiting professorships, to facilitate contacts between American and foreign universities, and to help find, both in the United States and abroad, visiting professors specially equipped to undertake specific tasks. Such requests are sometimes quite exacting. I recall, for instance, a request from São Paulo for an expert American metallurgist who could speak Brazilian Portuguese fluently!

These policies indicate clearly that the Department's interest and efforts are designed neither to duplicate private programs nor to control them. American professors whose travel has been facilitated by the Department, financially or otherwise, enjoy abroad the same professional freedom that they have in the United States.

The values of these projects to the professors themselves and to their home universities are obvious and need not be elaborated here. What justifies the Department's interest in them is the contribution which they have made to international cultural relations in general and to an intelligent understanding of the democratic, American way of life among other peoples and of other ways of life among our own. Some of these teachers and scholars, by their very presence, have demonstrated the interest of our scholars in the problems, achievements, and aspirations of the peoples overseas with whom they have worked. Many have left behind them such tangible evidences of their visits as the course in American Literature at the University of Rio de Janeiro, which Mr. Morton Zabel of the University of Chicago inaugurated three years ago and which has become a permanent lectureship there. Mr. Carroll C. Pratt, as visiting professor of psychology at Ankara University, Turkey, not only taught psychology but also served as a counsellor to the Minister of Education on general educational reforms. Thus their personal professional labors have values which long outlast their stays.

As teachers abroad, American professors have complemented other types of cultural and technical interchange. They have reached, for example, a much broader segment of foreign students than can be expected to study in this country. In fact, some time ago an Indian graduate student remarked to me that he was convinced that American professors must travel extensively since he had registered in an American university specifically to study under a famous professor, only to find that the man had recently left for India! Again, Mr. John B. Biesanz of the University of Pittsburgh, the author of *Costa Rica Life*, as visiting professor at the University of Panama, took part in the planning of an American cultural institute, consulted continuously with the American Scholarship Selection Committee there and acted as general adviser to Panamanian students planning to study in the United

States. Every one of the several Americans who have conducted English language courses abroad has contributed much to the important and comprehensive program of the Department in that field, the full story of which should be more widely known in this country.

These visiting professors have also done much to stimulate new and broader projects. For example, since completing a survey of engineering education in Latin America, Mr. S. S. Steinberg, Dean of the School of Engineering of the University of Maryland, has given numerous addresses before professional engineering societies and has drawn up definite plans for establishing and maintaining relations between engineers and professors of engineering of the United States and other republics of this hemisphere. In a recent address to the Association of Land Grant Colleges Mr. R. E. Buchanan, who had recently returned from an agricultural mission to the Near East, concluded: "The stake of the land grant college in the East... is obvious.... America has educational, political, and financial prestige. Our help is wanted, invited. The graduates of our colleges are needed. Will we recognize our obligation and the importance of the call? And remember that nationally and institutionally and agriculturally we will benefit quite as much, perhaps more, than the Near East."

IV

Nationally, we benefit considerably from such contact. Through lectures, articles, and personal friendships professors have done much towards the formation of an intelligent understanding of the United States in other lands. Mr. Ralph H. Gabriel, of Yale University, whose travel to Australia was expedited by the Department, served as visiting professor of American history at the University of Sydney for the last half of 1946. In addition to his academic work at the University, he delivered at least 27 addresses before various audiences and has contributed at least one article to the *Australian Quarterly*. Writing to President Seymour of Yale, Ambassador Robert Butler commented on his work as follows: "Dr. Gabriel has confirmed and strengthened Australia's high regard for American scholarship, which was established by

Dr. Allan Nevins during his wartime mission and continued last year by Dr. Henry S. Canby and Dr. Dixon Wecter. . . . The importance of this contribution is significant, when we consider the relationships that must bind these two peoples together in the affairs of the Pacific basin and also the fundamental concepts of democracy which they hold in common."

Concerning Mr. Oscar Riddle of the Department of Genetics of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, the American Embassy in Montevideo, Uruguay, reported that his visit was an important contribution to good relations between Uruguay and the United States, "increasing respect not only for United States science and education but also for human and spiritual qualities that are typically American." Norman Corwin's report already cited mentions the medical teaching mission of the Unitarian Service Committee, a group of American physicians who have recently brought to the Czech people medical and surgical techniques long missing under the Nazis. Mr. Corwin observes that one of several favorable articles in the Czech newspapers was entitled "This Is What International Relations Ought to Be." Mr. Carleton Beals, in a discriminating appraisal of what the people of Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia think of us, has observed:

One side of American good-will efforts, it seems to me, has borne definite fruits that will return interest for a long time to come. That has been the interchange of students and professors, the lavish training of Latin Americans in this country in all lines of endeavor. . . . As a result, many Latin Americans have been converted into firm friends of the United States. . . . This effort has brought together in more frequent contact the professional elements of both hemispheres: doctors, research workers, anthropologists, architects, engineers, agronomists, and so on, and this has redounded to the advantage of both sides, has led to new discoveries, new efforts and real respect and cordiality.¹

There can be no doubt that values like these are badly needed today, and not only by the peoples of this hemisphere. For the first time in history mass contacts between different peoples and cultures are a reality, the product of technical progress in communications and transportation. Such progress, together with the con-

¹ Beals, Carleton, Oliver, Bryce, Brickell, Herschel, Inman, Samuel Guy. *What the South Americans Think of Us*, A Symposium, N. Y., McBride & Co., 1945, p. 87.

tinued spread of popular education and the growing importance of public opinion in the conduct of foreign as well as of domestic affairs, pose for all of us a challenging question. Do they foreshadow what has often been described as a "shrinking" world, fraught with suspicion and fear? Or do they give promise of an *expanding* world of richer, warmer associations among men? The answer depends upon the point of view. The democratic answer would seem to be the encouragement of more contact between peoples in the hope that misunderstanding and distortion can be minimized as a larger bulk of accurate and revealing information affords perspective. Undertaken in this spirit, it is obvious that cultural exchanges can be a vital element in foreign relations.

It is clear that other peoples feel this need perhaps even more than we do. From Latin America come requests for professors under the grant-in-aid program of the Department of State, less than half of which can be filled. From the Near East and the Far East come requests for professors of chemistry and medicine, philosophy and economics. From Europe come requests like that of the Hungarian Minister of Education a year ago who asked for a visiting professor to fill a proposed chair of American Civilization. From other countries of Europe come requests for lecturers in various fields of specialization especially from scholars and professional men who were isolated intellectually during the War. Such an interest is another sign of the leadership in world affairs which the United States now holds and of the curiosity and expectation with which we are regarded in other lands.

How curious and responsive *we* are regarding other peoples is a question that we must answer. A century and a half ago a decent respect for the opinion of mankind prompted us to declare and justify our independence as a nation. Today a similar deference to world opinion should inspire us to demonstrate our *inter-dependence* as one people among many. As former Secretary of State Byrnes recently stated: "We are committed as a nation to a policy of collaboration with the other people and nations of the world. . . . There was a time when we could afford, or thought we could afford, to be unconcerned about what other people thought of us. . . but that time is past."

It is for this reason that the Department of State continues to

encourage cultural interchange. Its Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs, established in January, 1946, includes the work of the Department's Division of Cultural Cooperation which, since 1938, had been concerned with the encouragement of cultural relations with all areas of the world. The Office works closely with other agencies of our Government through the Interdepartmental Committee on Scientific and Cultural Cooperation, and it cooperates also with professional and cultural agencies and organizations outside the Government, enlisting their aid for programs in which it is especially interested, and, in turn, assisting and facilitating theirs. The importance which the Department attaches to the interchange of professors and other persons is indicated by the fact that one of the ten divisions of which the Office consists is the Division of International Exchange of Persons.

It is within the framework of the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs that the Department of State is continuing the program of cultural cooperation with Latin America, supporting American participation in UNESCO and planning programs under the Fulbright Act.

Since UNESCO has become well known in this country, I shall simply point out that, while that organization is vitally interested in exchange-of-persons programs, its position as an international, facilitative body and its modest budget imply the continuation and, indeed, the expansion of interchange projects supported financially by its member governments and member peoples. The Fulbright Act provides for the education of or by Americans or in American-sponsored institutions abroad from funds accruing from the sale of surplus properties to other nations. Preliminary surveys have indicated that visiting professorships will form a substantial part of the program in many countries. The Act, however, applies only to nations which purchase surplus properties under its provisions—not to every nation in the world. It authorizes expenditures only in the currencies of the foreign countries concerned—not in American dollars. Nor can it provide for all types of technical and cultural programs and services which a well-rounded, comprehensive cultural effort should include. Hence much remains to be done to supplement existing and prospective sources of support.

Whether our Government will be able to extend the provisions of the Act for Cooperation with the Other American Republics to other areas of the world, it is not possible to predict at this time.¹ One way or another, much of the initiative for projects of professorial interchange must rest where it has in the past—on the spontaneous interest, willingness, and enthusiasm of American scholars, and their universities. As they continue to pursue the age-old quest of ideas and ideals to other areas of the world, they should derive an added satisfaction from the realization that the international relations which they establish and cultivate are a vital contribution to peace.

¹ Since the writing of this article the United States House of Representatives has passed the Mundt Bill (H.R. 3342), authorizing the Department of State to carry on such educational exchanges on a world-wide basis. It is expected that the Senate will consider the Bill in the near future.—THE EDITOR.

FACULTY FAILINGS

Or, A Professor Can't Win

By HAROLD A. LARRABEE

Union College

- If he's brand-new at teaching, he lacks experience.
- If he's been teaching all his life, he's in a rut.
- If he does all the talking in class, he's in love with the sound of his own voice.
- If he leaves the discussion to others, he's just too lazy for words.
- If he gets his name in the newspapers, he's publicity-mad.
- If he never appears in the public prints, he's so much deadwood.
- If he attends all athletic contests, he's a popularity-seeker.
- If he never goes to a game, he's a public enemy.
- If he dresses decently, he's trying to be a fashion-plate.
- If he thinks about something besides clothes, he's a bum.
- If he seldom admits a mistake, he's arrogant.
- If he ever admits a mistake, he ought to go back to bricklaying.
- If he teaches at a different college every three years, he's a rolling stone.
- If he teaches at the same college for more than three years, he's a stuck-in-the-mud.
- If he takes an active part in faculty business, he's a politician.
- If he never serves on a committee, he's a work-dodger.
- If he plants an occasional joke in his lectures, he's a comedian.
- If he never condescends to an academic nifty, he's dusty dull.
- If he goes to chapel with regularity, he's a hypocrite.
- If he shies at sermons, he's a heathen.
- If he writes books, he's neglecting his teaching.
- If he never publishes, he never had a thought worth printing.
- If he hands out plenty of high grades, he has no standards.
- If he hands out plenty of low grades, he's a butcher.

If he uses notes, he's unoriginal.
 If he gets along without notes, he's an ad-libber.
 If he's on good terms with the President, he's a sycophant.
 If he doesn't wear out the stairway in the Ad Building, he's disloyal.
 If he gets to classes late, he's an oversleeper.
 If he gets to classes ahead of time, he's lost his watch.
 If he lets classes out early, he's run out of ideas.
 If he keeps classes overtime, he has no terminal facilities.
 If he gives a lot of quizzes, he's a slave-driver.
 If he seldom gives a test, he's too lazy to read papers.
 If he hangs around after class, he's looking for apples.
 If he makes speedy exits, he's got a case of studentophobia.
 If he sticks to his specialty, he has a one-track mind.
 If he tours the encyclopædia, he's a show-off.
 If he presents both sides of a question, he's afraid to commit himself.
 If he betrays his own opinions, he's a propagandist.
 If he ever says a kind word about anything Russian, he's getting monthly checks from Molotov.
 If he ever says a kind word about the G.O.P., he's been reading the election returns.
 If he listens to sports broadcasts, he's illiterate.
 If he can't identify Fritzie Zivic and Jack Kramer, he isn't human.
 If he gets paid for outside work, he's greedy.
 If he does outside work for nothing, he's a sucker.
 If he praises a book, he's on the payola.
 If he pans a book, he's just jealous.
 If he stands up while teaching, he's oratorical.
 If he sits down while teaching, his feet hurt.
 If he's young, he needs more seasoning.
 If he's old, he's seen better days.
 If he doesn't sign his name to anything, he's wise.
 If he writes stuff like this, and signs it, too, he's

H. A. L.

INTENSIVE LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION IN THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

By CLIFFORD S. PARKER

University of New Hampshire

Not only teachers of modern languages but also administrators of undergraduate studies are much interested in the impact of the so-called "Army method"¹ of teaching foreign languages upon civilian language instruction. It is generally agreed that it would be impractical to adopt in its entirety the method employed in the A. S. T. P. The conditions and objectives of Army instruction cannot be exactly duplicated. The Army, for example, wanted its language students to learn to *speak*; all other possible results of its instruction were subordinate to this. College teachers want their students to speak, to read, to write, and to acquire that knowledge of foreign civilizations which they believe to be a valuable part of a liberal education. The Army planned to send its students overseas; a civilian college cannot send its students anywhere. No one knows how many of them will ever go abroad, nor how soon the lucky ones will get there. A sound college objective cannot be solely to give students a command of useful phrases for hotels, restaurants, railway stations, and stores. The language study of civilians must contribute to their liberal education.

Despite all this, let us assume that the "oral approach" has a psychological value of which one should, so far as possible, take advantage. If a college should undertake to provide this type of instruction for all elementary students in foreign languages, what administrative difficulties would have to be overcome?

It has been frequently affirmed that the intensive method will not succeed unless, first, the number of "contact hours" per week is greater than under the conventional system, and unless, second,

¹ Various called "Army method," "oral approach," "intensive method," "aural-oral method," etc. In this article, I use "oral approach" to stress the oral practice, "intensive method" to emphasize the number of "contact hours," both of which are included in the "Army method."

classes are kept small. Elementary classes in college meet, as a rule, three hours per week—in some institutions, four or five. The A. S. T. P. demanded from fifteen to eighteen hours. It is true that civilian students are expected to study outside of class, theoretically two hours of preparation for each recitation, or six hours of study in addition to the three hours in class. Even if all students studied as long and as hard as expected (and one does not have to be cynical to doubt that all do), the total time devoted to a language would be only nine hours a week. Study outside of class, moreover, cannot possibly produce the oral fluency that "contact hours" are intended to give. The intensive method demands not more home study by students but more hours in class.

Furthermore, the A. S. T. P., as well as practically all proponents of the new method, set ten as the maximum number of students per section for drill periods. What civilian institution, before the War, was able to keep its language classes down to this figure?

The situation in the College of Liberal Arts of the University of New Hampshire may be fairly regarded as typical of a very great number of American colleges. What problems would the introduction of the "Army method" in elementary language instruction raise? First of all, what would it cost?

At present the total number of teaching hours in our elementary language courses (French, German, and Spanish) is fifty-four. Each class meets three times a week. If we should merely double the number of class hours (to six a week), we should have to provide instruction in an additional fifty-four hours. We might ask the members of the staff to teach more than their present fifteen hours weekly, on the assumption that oral work requires less preparation per class on their part. But I question the truth of this assumption. Good teaching demands adequate preparation. Intensive oral work would be at least as fatiguing as a traditional recitation. To be fair to our staff, we should provide additional teachers for all additional teaching. In this small town there are few, if any, low-cost "informants" or drill-masters available. If they could be found, we would not want to exploit them by underpaying them. We should have to engage three full-time (15 hours per week) and one part-time (9 hours per week) instructors. That

would involve, one may conservatively estimate, a *minimum* of \$7200 per year. These instructors would have to be able to speak a foreign language fluently¹ (this being a *sine qua non* of the success of the oral method), and persons with such skill would have to be in competition with other institutions that are already using an adaptation of the "Army method." And each of our sections would still be large: the average enrollment in all our elementary language classes last fall was over thirty students.

In elementary languages we have 565 students. We may suppose that the regular classes (three times per week) would remain as they are and that our task would be to provide a minimum of three extra drill periods per week for groups of ten students each. We should then require fifty-six groups, each meeting three hours weekly, for a total of 168 hours. To conduct the drill sessions, we should need eleven instructors, of the ability previously mentioned. This would cost us \$22,000 per year—if we could persuade qualified men or women to come here for an average salary of \$2000. This means \$22,000 *more* than our present instruction in elementary languages costs.

We might save some money by limiting the number of weekly hours of drill sessions to two—or even one! But this suggestion leads easily to a *reductio ad absurdum*. Why not save a little more by limiting the number to zero? We should be right back where we are now! If we are going to introduce a new method with some chance of success, we must arrange enough "contact hours" to insure that the students gain the skill that is the main objective of the new method. We could not possibly hope for satisfactory results with fewer than six hours. Let us not forget that other institutions are planning or have started to have eight or ten and that the Army directives for the A. S. T. P. stipulated eighteen. The Army did not have to worry at all about the cost. Perhaps some fortunate institutions can regard \$22,000 as a mere trifle; this sum may be a small proportion of the total amount they expend annually for instruction in elementary languages. But whatever the size of an institution, whatever the exact number of students involved may be, the fact is that the increased cost of the in-

¹ Some say that the informants or drillmasters *must be natives* of the country whose language they are teaching, or in any case perfectly bilingual.

tensive method will be from two and a half to three times the cost of the traditional program. In a great many colleges, an administrator should hesitate to sanction the introduction of a new, expensive program which would require the disbursement of funds that might be used for other purposes—such as raising salaries.

The total outlay could be reduced by using inferior instructors, by substituting phonograph records for instructors, perhaps in other ways; but such economies would endanger the success of the undertaking. Urban universities could select, from among the foreign-born population of their cities, part-time drill-masters who would work one or two hours a day in the late afternoon. But I am thinking, in this article, primarily of the problems of institutions located in small towns.

So far we have considered a six-hour per week program—three hours in large classes, three in small. We have found that for this typical college, the additional cost of the three drill periods would be at least \$22,000. Obviously six drill periods would cost twice as much. It is not necessary to estimate the cost of an eight-hour or of a ten-hour program such as has been introduced in some institutions. Costs will naturally vary from one region to another. The fact remains that the intensive method is far more expensive than the traditional one and cannot be recommended for the typical civilian college unless its advantages are beyond question.

Even a modest six-hour program would offer further problems.

There would be the matter of scheduling. When would the drill sessions be held? In the morning? One would immediately have protests from other departments that the language staff was trespassing on their class hours, or students would drop language study altogether because they could not fit a six-hour class into their schedules. In the afternoon? There would be conflicts with laboratories, physical education, athletics. Late afternoon? This would be best for most students; but if all drill sessions had to be crowded into a period from 3:30 to 5:30 P.M., there would have to be more drill-masters, for each one would teach only two hours a day, or ten a week. What teacher, moreover, would want to do all his teaching between 3:30 and 5:30 P.M.? Evenings? The best drill-master in the world could not compete with movies, lectures, concerts, and social events to the extent of holding the

interest and maintaining the regular attendance of his students. The Army could *command* students to be in class at a given time; the language groups, in the Foreign Area and Language Section of the A. S. T. P., had an A-1 priority. Language teachers in most civilian colleges have no priority at all.

Another difficulty would appear in the organization of intermediate courses. These are taken partly by students who have just come from secondary schools, partly by students who have had their elementary work in college. It will be a long time before the intensive method is widely introduced in high schools, if it ever is, for the obstacles to be overcome there are even greater than in colleges. In organizing intermediate courses, one must therefore keep in mind the type of training which high-school students receive. This means that if an "oral approach" were used in elementary courses in the colleges, it could not provide a firm basis for intermediate work. One could not build on it without doing the students from high school an injustice. It is difficult enough to conduct an intermediate course taken by students who have come from various schools, even when they have had the same general kind of instruction. It would be even more difficult if an instructor had to plan for some students who had had intensive oral training in college while others had had more conservative preparation in school.

Could there be separate intermediate courses for the two types of students, those who had acquired oral ability and those who had not? In the very large universities, this might be practical, although it is doubtful if, starting with freshmen, one could organize two parallel programs running through all four years. All the publicity which certain institutions have received as a result of their inauguration of intensive courses is silent on this point: while they offer intensive *elementary* courses for their beginners, what do they do for their students who have begun a language in high school?

II

One of the principal arguments for the "oral approach" is its psychological appeal. It is contended that it provides such superior motivation that students will not only learn more in one year

but will want to continue their language study a second year. The first part of the contention is hard to prove or disprove. We simply do not have reliable measuring devices for all aspects of language learning. Students who have three or more hours of oral practice a week in small classes, in addition to the regular class hours, ought, of course, to speak better at the end of a year than those who have only the three conventional hours, during which various objectives determine the nature of the instruction. But do oral drill sessions help them to read better than do classes in which reading is actually taught? Some say "yes," others say "no." In their oral practice, do they learn to understand and appreciate foreign civilizations? I think not. Even if they acquire a better command of the spoken language, is this due to superior motivation or to the extra hours?

As for the second part of the contention, if students do not continue, the "oral approach" is *partly* a failure. It has not given them an enthusiastic love of foreign language study. The effort made to give them a speaking knowledge is largely wasted if they stop at the end of the first year. In one institution which uses the intensive method for some students, 30% of the beginners in Italian, 35% of those in Russian are enrolled in second-year courses. What sort of command of Russian did the 65% of one-year students get, and what good will it do them a few years hence? In another institution, the proportion of continuing students in Spanish is probably higher than 35%, though exact information is not available. But the institution in question has *not* introduced an intensive program; on the other hand, it requires that a language be studied through two college years or the equivalent. I believe that if we had accurate and complete information, we would find that the continuance of language study in college depends less upon motivation than it does upon rules and regulations.

Few college teachers or administrators, it seems, have ever squarely faced this aspect of elementary language teaching. Although careful studies have been made about the continuation of language study in secondary schools (showing that from 80 to 85% of pupils do not take more than two years of a foreign language), no similar studies have been made, so far as I know, for the colleges. I doubt if many teachers and administrators, in colleges,

know just how many of their beginning students continue. They look at their large second-year registrations, but they do not know how many of the second-year students began the language they are studying in college, how many have come from a secondary school. My efforts to obtain information on this point from three institutions for purposes of comparison with the situation in my own Department of Languages have been, with the exception of the few percentages quoted above, fruitless. What is our own situation?

A study made last year revealed that in our intermediate German and our intermediate Spanish, we had 24% of the previous year's elementary students. In intermediate French, the proportion was much lower. I doubt if the introduction of an intensive method would change these percentages greatly.

There are many reasons why so few students continue the study of a language a second year. I may mention four, without attempting to discuss them: (1) a year's work in a foreign language, for many students, satisfies a "group requirement;" (2) the more successful we are in giving students a reading knowledge in one year (which, by the way, we do accomplish in the traditional three-hours-a-week program), so that they can pass a required foreign language "Reading Test," the less need they feel to continue; (3) many students interested in foreign languages would rather begin a second language than continue a single one; (4) the diversification of students' interests and the requirements of prescribed curricula lead to the dropping of language courses in favor of other subjects. We could hope for a 100% continuance only if we had the most severe compulsory measures. This is true in any field—mathematics, science, history, etc.

Is the intensive method justified, in view of its very high cost, if only a third or a fourth of the students for whom it is organized go on to a second year?

In evaluating the oral approach, one must keep two things in mind: first, that oral work is by no means an exclusive feature of the "Army method;" and, second, that a speaking knowledge, gained in one year or even two years, will be lost in a very few years if it is allowed to lapse. In connection with the first point, we may note that the "oral approach" is to a large extent the old "direct

method" brought up to date; more important for the present discussion, however, is the fact that no exponent of the traditional, eclectic method, however much value he sees in a *reading* knowledge or how much importance he attaches to a *cultural* knowledge, fails to give his elementary students a large amount of *oral* training. Adherence to conventional elementary work, in the three-hours-a-week class, does not mean that students will be entirely deprived of the fun of speaking. The days of memorizing rules of grammar are long past. Certain proponents of the new method seem to think that the first year of conservative instruction is devoted to grammar and grammar alone. They are trying to push in an open door. The difference between the "oral approach" and the conventional or eclectic method is merely, in respect to oral work, one of degree. The "oral approach" does not have any monopoly of oral training.

The second point brings us back to the fact that students who, chiefly in the freshman or sophomore years, have one year of oral training and then "drop it" will not be able to speak with adequate fluency and accuracy a few years later when they, or a few of them, have the luck to go to a foreign country. It is indisputable that of all beginners very few will continue their language study to the point of real and enduring mastery. This being so, would it be worth while to introduce an expensive method to give all beginners intensive oral drill? Is it not probable that any college could find better uses for the money?

Let us consider another point. Are the achievements of the "intensive method" due entirely to the use of an "oral approach?" Can they not be explained in large part by the fact that the students are with an instructor from two to six times as many hours per week? May we not suppose that the practice of French or German or Spanish in a room with an instructor is more beneficial, especially when oral ability is the principal objective, than the same amount of time would be if the students studied by themselves in a dormitory room? This seems to me to be a reasonable hypothesis. The tendency throughout the country is not simply to use more oral work in the conventional classes or to demand more home study but rather to increase the number of hours, up to six, or eight, or ten, during which instructors and students are

together. The obvious conclusion to draw is that it would be desirable to have at least six hours per week for all students, irrespective of the particular method employed. But is such expansion feasible? If we have to consider cost, scheduling, organization of intermediate courses, and the difficulty of finding competent instructors, it would not be. If applied to all students, it would be wasteful. Could, then, a six-hours-a-week program be introduced for a limited number of students? For what students?

III

One plan, being contemplated in one institution and actually followed in another, would be to use the intensive method for a carefully selected group of beginning students, retaining the regular three-hours-per-week classes for the great majority of students. This plan has serious disadvantages. There is no way of ascertaining which beginning students would derive most benefit from the intensive method. Prognosis tests are not sufficiently reliable. Students' desires (*i. e.*, allowing a small number to volunteer) would not be a guarantee that the most capable students were being given the special opportunity. If some first-year students were in a class with the eclectic method and others in a class with the intensive method, the confusion in the intermediate classes would be worse than ever. To admit some students into an intensive class and to deny admission to others would simply not be fair. Is there not a better way of determining for which students six-hour classes should be organized?

For the sake of my argument, I stressed above the negative aspect of one basic fact, namely, that many students in elementary classes do *not* take the same language a second year. Let us note, now, the affirmative facet of the same fact. Many students, a minority but still a goodly number, do continue. They are joined by other students who have had their elementary work before coming to college. Some take a third and a fourth year in college. Some take courses in foreign literatures; for them, I do not propose any change. Others are in composition and conversation courses. These are the students who really want to learn a language well! Here are the ones who really want to learn to speak! Instead of

trying to cajole a large group of more or less diffident beginners into learning to speak a foreign language (which, if it is really to be accomplished, demands enthusiasm, time, and toil on the part of both instructors and students), would it not be far more reasonable to reward the interest of students in intermediate and advanced classes by giving *them* the best opportunities that can be provided for acquiring the skill they indubitably want?

Providing extra drill sessions for advanced students would be much closer to the conditions of the A. S. T. P. The Army did not offer eighteen hours of language study per week to every G. I. who might be curious about a foreign language, but only to those soldiers who had been carefully selected on the basis of ability and interest. Beginning students are not a well-selected group; they have various motives for taking a language course, including the uninspiring one of merely passing off a requirement. Intermediate and advanced students, on the contrary, have demonstrated both their ability and their interest by meeting the prerequisites for the higher courses and voluntarily registering for them.

In all the hundreds of pages devoted to a discussion of the "Army method," and in all the announcements of its introduction (in a modified form) in civilian universities, there always seems to be a basic assumption that it is a method for beginners only. Given plenty of time and plenty of money, it can, of course, be used for beginners. But most colleges have neither plenty of time nor plenty of money. And I have tried to show that if used for beginners the method would be extremely expensive, very difficult to administer, and, when judged by results a few years in the future, disappointing. But giving selected students extra time would well be worth the extra cost.

There would still be the problem of scheduling; but, as the number of students would be far smaller than if elementary classes were included, this problem would not be insuperable. There would still be the problem of finding qualified instructors; but, again, one or two instructors would be easier to find than six. There would still be the problem of finance. But if the program were limited to a relatively few students no large amount of money would be required. If the administration were convinced that the money would be usefully spent, a language department could ask for it

without embarrassment. Finally, the organization of intermediate courses would no longer be a problem.

Double-time classes, then, should be organized first of all for *advanced* students. Students in composition and conversation courses are the ones who would be most likely to respond to the proposed plan and to continue language study and practice beyond those courses, even beyond graduation. Being nearer to graduation than the elementary students, they would in any event have less time to lose their acquired ability and would, moreover, have an interest-incentive not to lose it.

The adaptation of the "intensive method" to language instruction in our colleges should be made in the middle and at the top, not at the bottom, of our language program. As in the A. S. T. P., where it was developed, it is a method for specialists. Its most valuable feature is its *intensiveness*, its large number of "contact hours" when instructors and students are together. At best, colleges can imitate it but partially; eighteen class hours are impractical. But we should take advantage of the current interest in speaking foreign languages. Instead of starting at the bottom, where time, money, and energy would be largely wasted, let us start at the top, where we can be practically sure of success.¹

¹ At the University of New Hampshire we have changed "French 13-14", formerly a conventional three-hours-a-week course in composition and conversation for advanced students, to a six-hours-a-week course. Three morning hours (Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday) are devoted to grammatical study and written French, under an American instructor, while three afternoon hours (Monday, Wednesday, and Friday) are spent on oral practice, under a native Frenchman. Thus the students have one hour of French in class *daily* and six "contact hours" weekly. "Home-work" has been reduced, so that the students are expected to give to study and recitation the same number of hours as before. They receive the same number of semester-credits as formerly. The experiment has worked so well that we shall continue the procedure next year and also introduce it in a similar course for advanced students in Spanish.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS AND THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES¹

By GUY E. SNAVELY

Association of American Colleges

The American Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges have a common goal. Both Associations strive earnestly to elevate and to maintain on a high level the processes of higher education in the United States. Success will continue only when the teaching staff operates most efficiently.

Too often the casual observer thinks the American Association of University Professors exists solely to defend the professor who has run into some collision with his administrative officers. Likewise the undiscerning imagine that the Association of American Colleges does nothing but hold an Annual Meeting with headline speakers and issue a quarterly bulletin containing articles more or less informational and inspirational in nature.

Both Associations foster many other activities that accrue to the welfare of the professor. Particularly noteworthy has been the cooperation, eventuating in final success, between the committees from each Association charged with drawing up a satisfactory statement on Academic Freedom and Academic Tenure.

In fact, all the commissions and standing committees of the Association of American Colleges are working on projects that aim primarily at the welfare of the professor. The Committee on Insurance and Annuities has insisted through its annual reports, and often more directly, on the establishment of retirement plans in all member colleges and universities. Doubtless the influence of this commission has been more widely effective than is supposed.

¹ Address given at the Annual Dinner of the American Association of University Professors in connection with the Thirty-third Annual Meeting of the Association held in Boston, Massachusetts, February 22-23, 1947.

It is continually alert to the problem of inclusion of the staffs of institutions of higher learning in the operation of the Federal Social Security Laws. The record of its activities is to be found in the March issue of the quarterly *Bulletin* of the Association of American Colleges for the past ten years.

The work of the Commission on Liberal Education is of primary interest for the college and university teacher. This Commission issued a statement five years ago that has been significant and potentially influential in the many curricula changes that have been announced from time to time recently by the leading colleges and universities. The findings of the Commission anticipated much that was included in the Harvard Report on General Education that has been so widely discussed.

Likewise of abiding concern to all A. A. U. P. members must be the continuing aims of the A. A. C. Commission on Teacher Education. If the recommendations made by this Commission are heeded by all concerned there will be noticeable improvement in teaching by college instructors. Likewise will there be a betterment in the teaching of high-school students by the new college graduates who have benefited by the improved methods of their own college professors. The distinguished gentlemen in the Association of American Universities, heretofore unimpressed with the value of cooperation in this area, have indicated a willingness to have a committee from their group sit down with a similar committee from the Association of American Colleges to discuss the whole problem of the education of persons going into college teaching.

The Commission on the Arts has for some years now expanded its program to circulate among the colleges for two-day visits professors in all departments, as well as artists and musicians. A point has been made to use robust scholars who have just retired at the early age of 65. A former president of the American Association of University Professors, and one who has been vocal in its councils for many years, the distinguished A. J. Carlson, is among this group of "faculty visitors."

A similar roll call of the American Association of University Professors' Committees would be carrying coals to Newcastle, but it would show quite a parallelism in names and functions.

The best concrete evidence of cooperation between the two Associations is the joint statement on Academic Freedom and Academic Tenure. The Association of American Colleges adopted it without dissenting voice in January, 1941; the American Association of University Professors gave its approval a year later; and, within another year or two, similar action was taken by the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

The immense value of the well-nigh universal acceptance of the intent of this joint statement is the dropping off in complaints of infraction of its ideals by administrative officers. At least, I understand this is true with regard to most of the college and university presidents installed within the past few years.

Since the advent of the speaker to his present position, he has written to every new member president a letter of congratulation, in which he includes a paragraph referring to the working agreement between the two Associations on Academic Freedom and Academic Tenure. Invariably the new president replies that he appreciates the suggestion and promises to study the statement carefully, or proudly states he has been a professor and is fully aware of what is involved.

The present pleasant relations between the two Associations were not always thus. The speaker will ever remember his surprise and distress at the tenseness that prevailed when the joint committee had its first session during his administration, now nearly ten years ago. He had arranged for the meeting in a committee room in the Cosmos Club in Washington. The two groups of about six from each association faced each other across a long table: they resembled two rival football teams rearing to mow each other down. Through the years the situation has so improved that when committees from the two groups now confer one is reminded of cooing lovers. May I say *sotto voce* that the gradual retirement of distinguished committee members with hair-trigger tempers did not delay the development of more congenial relations. Who would have thought ten years ago that the American Association of University Professors would be so concerned with the abrupt dismissal of a university president as to put the offending institution on an unapproved list.

Further evidence of improved relationships are the frequent con-

ferences between the executive officers of the two Associations now that both have headquarters in Washington. Several complaints of serious nature have been settled through such conferences. An illustration is a recent session of these two officers with the president of the college and president of the trustees of a well-known college which resulted in the resignation of a fractious professor with payment of a year's salary in advance but with no resultant row which was imminent just before the group got together.

The two Associations can and should continue to cooperate cordially for the welfare of the professor.

ARE SLOW READERS STUPID?

By GERALD BARNES

Boston University

Educational psychologists and reading experts keep telling us, keep offering new evidence that slow readers are poor readers and should reform. It is nearly always assumed that the slow reader is slow because he does not know how to use his eyes, because he reads words instead of ideas, because he habitually lets his mind loaf along on three cylinders when it should be humming along on eight or twelve.

Doubtless the great majority of slow readers have one or more of these bad habits, but are there not important exceptions? I have asked dozens of highly intelligent people how fast they read material which they consider important. A fair minority—some of them are tops in their field—say that they are slow readers; and I mean slow, say 20-35 pages an hour. Shall we conclude that their achievements are in spite of their inefficient reading habits? Perhaps, but let us not be too hasty.

The experts claim that fast readers remember what they read and are clever at true-false tests on subject matter. Granted. But is reading for absorption or recognition the only kind or the best kind of reading?

Once I asked a psychology professor how fast he read plays. His answer was significant. "I used to read them a hundred to a hundred and fifty pages an hour, but since I began coaching plays I've slowed down to about one-third that speed. I imagine how the stage would be set, lighting, colors, etc.; how the lines could be interpreted; what could be cut or changed; and so on."

Are we to conclude that this man "ain't what he used to be?" Has coaching drama ruined his eye action or pushed him back to the childish practice of reading words instead of ideas?

Another slow reader, an eminent thinker and writer in the field of sociology, answered my question thus: "I rarely read over thirty

pages an hour unless I am skimming something of little importance to me. I usually have some project in mind which I am trying to develop. I try to make everything I read contribute something, however indirectly, to that development. This slows me up."

We are told that educational background is a big factor in fast reading, but evidently this scholar's rich intellectual experience gave him more to think about in every page that he read.

A professional writer's answer ran something like this: "I read from the author's point of view—the author as a craftsman, I mean. If he botches a scene, I find myself trying to set him right. If his dialogue stinks, I get busy fumigating and streamlining it. If his plot sags, I figure out how to lift its face. On the other hand if he is doing a better job than I can do, I am trying to discover exactly how he gets his effects. This sometimes means reading a passage a second and third time. I can't do this sort of thing at two pages a minute. More often it's two minutes to the page."

Are these readers slow because they are content to dawdle along? It seems unlikely. Surely it is only common sense to inquire why a reader is slow before concluding that he is stupid. The rapid reader may be well adjusted to some aspects of modern life, but fast reading *can* be a bad habit and the slow reader *may* be getting more out of a page than the fast one gets out of a chapter.

The experts tell us not to stop and reread certain passages. Really now, is reading merely something to be gotten through with? If you had just finished a particularly enjoyable dance, what would you think of someone who advised you not to seek out the same partner a second time? Obviously there are good and bad reasons for repeating. If you have to go back because your eyes have been mechanically following down the page while your mind is wool gathering, you are not reading efficiently. If, however, you reread to clinch some important points in your memory, to relate a fact, an idea, an anecdote to your immediate need, or simply to enjoy again with new overtones what has given you pleasure—then, indeed, there is no occasion for your hanging your head before the "experts."

Evidently there are two rather distinct reasons for reading: (1) To remember what the writer says—his facts and his ideas. This involves a reasonable degree of understanding. (2) To make the

author's contribution an occasion for thinking all around the subject or for independent thought along similar lines. This kind of reading might be called critical or creative. If the article is partisan the critical reader will not only discover this fact but may speculate as to the reason for the author's bias and even go on to review mentally some of the arguments on the other side. If the story resembles or contrasts interestingly with other literature, he will to some degree reflect on the comparison. If the book contributes even indirectly to a private project of his own, he may follow the lead even to the point of making a few notes in the margin. (Of course, if he starts developing his own outline, we would hardly call it reading.)

It is obvious that a vigorous imagination contributes greatly to creative reading. So does a rich intellectual experience. The more alert the mind and the more facts and ideas it has digested, the better equipped it is for this type of reading. If the experts maintain that such procedure is study rather than reading, we might counter that what they recommend is little more than skimming.

Some people prefer to spend most of their time on material worth reading creatively. A friend of mine recommends giving a quarter to a third of reading time to good poetry, because it contains the marrow of literature and stimulates the full stretch of the reader's thought and imagination. On the other hand the thoughtful reader need not limit himself to great literature. Another friend of mine reads his newspaper not merely to absorb the information of the hour but to understand better the complexities of crowd psychology and human behavior. His account of what he reads between the lines is more fascinating than any newspaper. Gautier, the French poet-critic-novelist, read all sorts of stuff and seemed to get as much stimulation from a poor book as from a good one. It was all grist to his mill.

In our objection to the sweeping assumptions of the experts, let us not forget that the opposite assumptions may be even more unscientific. Slow readers are not necessarily—or usually—thoughtful, critical, and creative. Neither can we assume that rapid readers, though strong on information, will hardly be original thinkers. Fast readers often think *about* what they have read

after they have quit reading. Their critical and creative ideas may come to them on the subway or in the middle of a party or just before they go to sleep. A certain historian comes to my mind. An exceptionally rapid reader, he nevertheless reads a great deal between the lines as his lectures and writings abundantly prove.

What, then, can we conclude about fast and slow readers? Leaving out those who read words instead of ideas—admittedly a large group—we can make no scientific generalizations. The important question is not how fast do you read but how much intellectual experience and growth do you achieve per page and per hour, or, better yet, per book and per month? It is well known that good runners come in all shapes and sizes. Similarly good readers come at all speeds—and poor ones likewise.

THE REASON FOR THE RHYME

By ELMO A. ROBINSON

San Jose State College

All institutions in this narrative, and all persons, including the author, are imaginary. Any resemblance to reality is merely evidence for Peirce's Tychism.

Now that VE and VJ days are well in the past and the question of responsibility for Pearl Harbor is being openly discussed, I feel free to divulge some hitherto unpublicized facts concerning an episode which occurred in 1941. At that time I was employed by one of the larger producers of cinema films, with the responsibility of purchasing screen rights for the works of successful authors. In November, 1941 Mr. Beiznicht, my employer, handed me the following ballad, which he had come across in Lawson's Los Angeles bookshop.

Hi, diddle diddle,
The cat and the fiddle,
The dish ran away with the spoon;
The little dog laughed
To see such sport,
And the cow jumped over the moon.

"That," he said, "has the making of a big color feature. All it needs is some love interest."

"Who's the author?" I inquired.

"Find out," he replied, "and sign him up before anyone else gets to him."

In such matters I often consult my friend Choclaire, who is Professor of Contemporary and Future American Literature at Los Longfellos County College. At my earliest opportunity I called upon him.

"Here," I said, "is a manuscript. I want to find the author. Can you help me?"

He studied it intently for several minutes. "I cannot tell you the exact author," he replied slowly. "But from the symbolism and style I can definitely pronounce it very modern. And from the profundity of its thought I judge it to be written by a philosopher, probably a living American philosopher."

Now philosophers are rare birds to me. We don't bother much with philosophy in Hollywood. Psychiatry maybe, and psychology, but not philosophy. "How do I find him?" I queried.

Choclaire hunted a bit in his files, finally pulling out a paper. "Are you making your usual trip to New York next month?" "Certainly."

"Then I advise you to stop off at Vassal. There is to be a meeting of philosophers there in the last week of the month."

A few weeks later I stepped off the train at Vassal. Bad weather had delayed me and there had been the usual provoking wait at Albany. It was already late on the last afternoon of the last day of the conference. Nevertheless I took the bus up through town to the end of the line and was directed by a genial gate man to a building he called the Aula.

Arriving there, I discovered only four men present. The others, so they informed me, had already departed for their homes. I find that I cannot recall the names of these four and shall have to call them A, B, C, and D. But the colleges where they taught I do remember. These were Wellesmith, College of the Duke and the Duchess, New Jersey Junioriversity, and the Massachusetts Institute of Epistemology. I am surprised that I do remember, for I am not a college man myself. But I am sending my son to Hoozhearst to study journalism.

To these gentlemen I explained my problem, reading them the complete manuscript, beginning with "Hi, diddle" and ending with "over the moon."

Professor A of Wellesmith spoke up at once. "Undoubtedly," he affirmed, "this is the work of a logical positivist, perhaps Carnap of Chicago. What you have read is evidently nonsense. Logical positivists claim that all metaphysics is nonsense. Therefore, in my judgment, this was written for the purpose of making it clear that all metaphysical speculations are nothing but a fancy way of saying 'diddle diddle.'"

"Moreover," continued Professor A, "note that the word *and* appears twice, emphasizing the fundamental relationship of conjunction, which is the basis of all logical thought."

"That argument is pretty thin," interrupted B of the College of the Duke and the Duchess. "I contend that what you have is an exposition of Dewey's theories of education. It may even be the work of Dewey himself. The opening line 'Hi, diddle diddle' evidently means 'Away with all methods which diddle, or waste, the student's time.'"

"As for the remainder of the work," Professor B went on, "note the emphasis on relationships which a study of science reveals. The child needs to know that dishes and spoons go together, and that the anatomy of the cat is necessary to the construction of the fiddle. Note also the emphasis on activity. There's something doing in every line. Needless restraints are eliminated. Let the cow jump over the moon if she feels like it. For education, rightly understood, is good sport. No wonder the little dog laughed. There's no doubt about it. This is genuine Dewey."

"It's not Dewey," rejoined C of New Jersey Junioriversity. "Anyone should be able to recognize this as Whitehead. Here we have an Occasion or Event, composed of other events. The picture is one of motion, of Process. I think Whitehead meant to write not 'diddle diddle' but 'doodle doodle,' for doodling is one of the simplest human processes.

"Consider the other details," he continued. "They combine Whitehead's scientific and aesthetic interests. The cat and the fiddle represent Space and Time, since the cat occupies space and the fiddle keeps time. But space and time are relative, for in the world of Newton cows could not jump over moons. Einstein has changed all that. The dish and the spoon suggest Descartes' unpardonable bifurcation of nature, which has led philosophers ever since to run away from reality. The laugh of the little dog indicates the element of aesthetic value which every event possesses."

By this time the three speakers were considerably excited over their rival theories and I was ready to give up the search for my author. Meanwhile D of the Massachusetts Institute of Episte-

mology had been studying the manuscript and making pages of notes. At this point he spoke.

"I must inform you gentlemen that this is not a philosophical treatise, but an espionage message in cipher. Since the event to which it refers has already occurred, it is of no value. But had I deciphered it a few weeks earlier, instead of this afternoon, the course of history would have been altered."

Naturally we urged him to tell us its meaning and his method of deciphering it.

"To break this cipher," explained Professor D, "one must find a series of numbers, which the message itself reveals. For example, we first count the number of nouns; there are eight. We then count the number of letters in the repeated word *diddle*; there are twelve. To make a long story short, by such methods we arrive at the series 8, 12, 7, 13, 15, 12, 12, 8, 11, 4, 13. Skipping the first word *Hi*, which is evidently an abbreviation for Hawaiian Islands, we count letters as directed by this series."

He indicated the result by copying my manuscript in this form:

HI diddle dIddle
the cat aNd the fidDle,
the dish ran AWay with the spoonN;
the little doG laughed
to seE such spoRt,
and the cow JumPed over the mooN.

Then, copying the capitalized letters, he wrote:

Hawaiian Islands in danger, J-P-N.

Naturally, even the philosophers were convinced by this demonstration. After some further conversation I expressed my thanks and returned to the railway station to continue my journey to New York.

There were now greater film possibilities than ever in my manuscript, but I saw that government permission would be necessary. The FBI refused to grant this, however, on the ground that the picture would reveal to the Japanese the information that we had cracked their most secret code.

After VJ day I passed this story on to one of my friends in the

Senate, suggesting that it might aid in determining responsibility for our unpreparedness at Pearl Harbor. He replied as follows:

"Your manuscript convinces me that President Truman is right. Nobody in particular is responsible for Pearl Harbor. Everybody is responsible. This document appeared in print years ago. But we failed to pay attention to it. Here is one more proof, if one is needed, that education in this country has broken down."

THE COMMISSION FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL RECONSTRUCTION

By HAROLD E. SNYDER

Editor's Note: This statement by Dr. Harold E. Snyder is a report on the work of the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction of which he is the Director. It was prepared at the request of the Secretariat of the American Association of University Professors. As indicated in the report the American Association of University Professors participated in planning the work of the Commission and is represented on the Commission.

During the early months of 1946 the American Council on Education called a series of conferences to discuss problems of educational rehabilitation in the war-devastated countries. These conferences were participated in by officers of UNRRA, UNESCO, the Department of State, and the U. S. Office of Education, and by representatives of approximately 20 national educational organizations, among them the American Association of University Professors.

First-hand reports presented at these meetings brought out the grave state of education in the countries which had been under enemy occupation, the thousands of destroyed schools, the total lack in many areas of books, materials, and even common school supplies, and the lack of qualified educational leadership. It was further reported that, although there were under way several relief activities of governmental and voluntary groups touching on education, such efforts were scattered, uncoordinated, often poorly planned, and totally inadequate to meet the urgent, immediate educational needs of youth.

UNRRA officials attested to the importance of educational rehabilitation to insure the permanence of much of the basic work done by that organization in the fields of health, welfare and agricultural and industrial rehabilitation, and reported the disappointment of the war-devastated countries at the inability of UNRRA,

due to limitations in its charter, to provide educational rehabilitation. UNESCO officials urged the importance of immediate large-scale voluntary assistance to insure at least a minimum educational opportunity for youth in the war-torn countries. Such assistance was regarded as basic to the success of the educational, scientific, and cultural organization of the United Nations. Representatives of the Department of State emphasized the urgency of such efforts in re-establishing American cultural ties abroad and strengthening our international relations.

The participants in these conferences, representing major national organizations, agreed that a major coordinating Commission was urgently needed and requested the American Council on Education to seek a grant from a foundation for this purpose. In June, 1946 a grant was received from the Carnegie Corporation, and the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction was formally launched. In July an Executive Secretary¹ was appointed—Harold E. Snyder, formerly Director of Training at UNRRA. Shortly after his appointment an urgent invitation was received from the UNESCO Preparatory Commission to have him participate in its conference last July in London. He was then sent by UNESCO to Greece and other European countries to observe educational needs and to confer with officials there concerning appropriate forms of American assistance. The work of the Commission actually got under way upon his return in August. In September an Associate Secretary² was appointed—Robert Stanforth, formerly President of Bay Path College, Springfield, Massachusetts.

At this and later meetings of UNESCO authoritative reports were received from the various war-torn countries on the status of the universities. Many colleges and universities have been completely destroyed, among them Warsaw, Caen, Nymegen, and most of the major institutions in China and the Philippines. Hundreds of higher institutions lost all of their equipment and books. Very few instructors have been trained during the war years to replace the hundreds who have been killed or rendered unfit for further service as a result of the war. The serious inflation in

¹ Since then, title has been changed to that of Director.

² Since then, title has been changed to that of Assistant Director.

most of these countries has reduced the economic status of teachers and professors to a level below that of common laborers.

II

The Commission is composed of persons in positions of responsibility in 22 American educational organizations. The American Association of University Professors was represented initially by Dr. Ralph E. Himstead, and later and at present by Dr. Robert P. Ludlum. The Commission works in close association with scores of other organizations—educational, civic, and religious and social—which are interested in our conducting or planning activities designed to meet the educational needs of children and adults in the war-torn countries.

The members of the Commission, and the organization with which each member is associated as an officer, are as follows: T. G. Pullen, Jr., National Council of State School Officers, Chairman; A. J. Brumbaugh, American Council on Education, Vice-Chairman; Lyle W. Ashby, Educational Press Association; Lawrence L. Bethel, American Association of Junior Colleges; Livingston L. Blair, American Red Cross; William G. Carr, National Education Association; L. H. Dennis, American Vocational Association; Laurence Duggan, Institute of International Education; Milton S. Eisenhower, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities; W. L. W. Field, National Council of Independent Schools; Thomas H. Henderson, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for **Negroes**; Msgr. F. G. Hochwalt, National Catholic Educational Association; Mary E. Leeper, Association for Childhood Education; Waldo G. Leland, American Council of Learned Societies; W. H. Lemmel, American Association of School Administrators; Robert P. Ludlum, American Association of University Professors; Kathryn McHale, American Association of University Women; Carl H. Milam, American Library Association; J. Earl Moreland, Association of American Colleges; Edward O'Connor, National Catholic Welfare Conference—War Relief Services; Charlotte E. Owen, American Council of Voluntary Agencies for Foreign Service, Inc.; W. W. Pierson, Association of American Universities; Wilfred H. Ringer, National Association of Secondary

School Principals; Agnes Samuelson, National Congress of Parents and Teachers; H. A. Sprague, American Association of Teachers Colleges; Herman B. Wells, National Association of State Universities.

The Commission is recognized by UNESCO, UNRRA, and the State Department as the American agency through which requests for educational assistance are to be channeled. UNRRA delegated to the Commission responsibility for overseeing a fund which has been set aside for the shipment of contributed educational supplies and materials. Specific requests for assistance referred to the Commission by these agencies and by the various governments of the war-devastated countries now total more than 150 and are increasing daily. The Commission undertakes to appraise the validity of these requests, their priority in terms of the total need, and their feasibility in the light of the competence of American organizations to render effective assistance.

Among the types of activity of the Commission are the collection and shipment of educational supplies and materials, the offering of fellowships and scholarships, the organization of educational missions, the development of educational work camp reconstruction projects and the collection and shipment of scientific, technical, and professional books. Many worth-while efforts by organizations and institutions were, of course, under way before the formation of the Commission.

The Commission is not an operating agency but will serve as a clearing house of information and adviser to national organizations and a liaison for them with other groups—voluntary, governmental, and national. It publishes a monthly *Bulletin* of information, a directory of organizations working in this field, and other informative materials which may be secured from the national office of the Commission. The Commission aids national organizations in providing for the administration of new projects.

On November 22-23, 1946 the Commission called a National Conference on International Educational Reconstruction as a part of the American contribution to the celebration of UNESCO Month. This conference was attended by representatives of approximately 100 organizations. Among the recommendations of the conference were the following:

1. The urgent importance of providing educational supplies and materials was recognized. It was recommended that these be allotted without discrimination as to race, creed, color, or political belief. Aid should go to the former allied nations, to displaced children, and, as soon as practicable, to former enemy nations.
2. Steps should be taken to see that those aided are those in greatest need and to insure adequate reporting from recipient to donor.
3. Increased efforts by Federal, industrial, and private agencies to meet the utter lack in many areas of books and periodicals was recommended with the suggestion that such aid be provided for at least two years.
4. It was urged that special assistance be provided to teachers, including financial assistance to permit them to buy basic essentials since inflation has impoverished the teaching profession in most countries.
5. The Conference emphasized the importance of educational missions of all types. Foreign educational leaders should be brought to the U. S. for short periods of observation and study and the services of expert educational advisers should be offered to the war-devastated countries.
6. The provision of thousands of fellowships and scholarships in American universities for advanced foreign students was urged. To this end the passage of the Bloom Bill and the speedy implementation of the Fulbright Act were favored. Study grants are particularly needed now for mature persons expert in technical and educational fields in which marked advances have been made in the United States during the war years. It was urged that visas and immigration laws be relaxed in order to permit freer travel by foreign students. Larger fellowship stipends for foreign students are needed.
7. It was suggested that orientation courses be provided to help foreign visitors understand American ways and conditions and to prepare Americans for more effective service and study abroad.
8. The State Department was urged to appoint more American cultural attachés abroad to bring about better reporting about educational conditions and to improve the selection of candidates for fellowships and study grants.
9. The importance of "volunteer service groups," sometimes known as "educational work camps," was urged in order to provide American students with an opportunity to join with the students of other countries in rebuilding destroyed schools and other public facilities.

III

The Commission has identified the following major categories of need:

1. Simple supplies.
2. Materials and equipment.
3. Books and periodicals, and materials for their preparation.
4. Fellowships, scholarships, and study grants for foreign students.
5. Educational missions.
6. Educational work projects.

Materials and Equipment

Universities in the war-torn countries are in serious need of materials of all sorts. There is a particular lack of materials for engineering, medical, dental, and agricultural schools, laboratory equipment for science teaching, equipment for psychometric laboratories, and duplicating equipment of all kinds, including typewriters. It is suggested that every college department survey its equipment to determine whether any items can be spared for the war-devastated countries. Used equipment in good condition is quite acceptable. Arrangements for shipments differ from country to country and will require further instruction from the Commission.

Books and Periodicals

Scientific, technical, and professional books and journals published since 1939 are literally worth their weight in gold in all of the war-devastated countries. English and American literary classics are also in great demand. These may be sent prepaid to the American Book Center, Library of Congress, Washington, which will sort, allocate, pack, and ship.

Fellowships, Scholarships, and Study Grants

The Commission emphasizes the importance of providing fellowships and study grants to bring outstanding educators and scholars to the United States for "refresher" programs. Educators in the war-devastated countries have been deprived of all contact with

their professional colleagues in other countries during the war years and have had no opportunity to carry on research or otherwise keep up with developments in their fields. The limited resources of these countries make it necessary to provide financial assistance to make possible such refresher training. Fellowships and study grants can be handled by the Institute of International Education with the cooperation of the State Department and the U. S. Office of Education. It is urged that faculty groups consider the possibility of establishing some such study grant for aiding one university teacher chosen with the aid of UNESCO. The cost of a grant would naturally vary, depending upon the distance and the length of the stay. In some fields a carefully planned program of three to four months would be of great value. In other cases a year or more would be required. It is suggested that a minimum of \$2000 would be needed to provide such advanced study opportunity for one person. If room and board could be provided without charge, this figure might be reduced somewhat.

Cash Gifts to UNESCO

Individuals, organizations or institutions may, if they prefer, make direct gifts of cash to UNESCO's one hundred million dollar campaign for educational reconstruction. Such gifts will be used wherever most needed in rebuilding educational facilities in the war-devastated countries. Checks may be sent to the Commission at the address below for forwarding to UNESCO.

Basic Relief for University Professors

The Commission is concerned exclusively with educational reconstruction, leaving to other agencies the provision of basic relief such as food and clothing. It desires, however, to call the attention of the teaching profession to the deplorable plight of educational workers in the war-devastated countries, in view of the seriously inflated currencies of nearly all those countries. In Greece the average teacher is paid \$30 per month—insufficient in normal times but now scarcely enough to purchase a pair of good shoes. In Vienna the official diet of approximately 1000 calories must be

supplemented by black market purchases which university professors cannot afford. As a result of these conditions, many Austrian educators will be forced to leave the profession or will face slow starvation.

A nonprofit organization, CARE, is prepared to send parcels of food to needy university professors selected by reliable American social service agencies working in France, Holland, Belgium, Germany (British, American, and French Zones and Berlin), Norway, Finland, Italy, Greece, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Great Britain, Roumania, Hungary and Austria. It is also possible to send parcels to recipients designated by the donors. Parcels cost \$10 each and provide a total of 40,000 calories. CARE guarantees delivery or the money is refunded. Checks should be made payable to CARE and sent to 50 Broad Street, New York 4, N. Y., with a note indicating *either* the name and address of an individual to whom the parcel is to be sent, *or* simply the statement that the parcel should be sent to some needy university faculty member in one of the fourteen countries served by CARE.

IV

The years 1947 and 1948 will be particularly critical ones in world history. They will provide a test of the ability of the peoples of the world to cooperate effectively in all fields of human endeavor. These will be the years during which the major scars of war, the psychological and educational handicaps imposed by war, will either be largely overcome or will remain as blatant reminders of our inability or unwillingness to exercise leadership in those matters which concern the minds and spirit of men.

It is apparent that aid is not going to be carried on by means of large scale appropriations by governments. This is true despite the fact that the formerly occupied countries were repeatedly given reason to expect, both during and immediately following the war, more comprehensive American aid. The failure of such aid to materialize promptly has been most disillusioning to countries which had counted upon it and has been construed by some as an indication of a lack of American interest in UNESCO. Although voluntary efforts have been slow in developing, they are now be-

ginning to materialize and can still, with adequate stimulation and direction, do a great deal to reassure the peoples of the world concerning American intentions and to create the intellectual climate basic to true world understanding and peace.

Dr. Howard Wilson, Deputy Executive Secretary to UNESCO, cabled as follows to the National Conference in the fall of 1946:

RECENT EXPERIENCES HERE CONVINCE ME SUCCESS YOUR GROUPS RAISING MONEY AND MATERIALS EDUCATIONAL REHABILITATION IS SINGLE MOST IMPORTANT FACTOR IN RELIEVING DIRE NEED OFFSETTING DESPAIR AND CYNICISM AND LAYING FOUNDATION UNESCO'S WORK. MY DEEPEST HOPES FOR SUCCESS YOUR CAMPAIGN.

The United States National Commission for UNESCO, recognizing the central importance in any program involving cultural cooperation of eliminating the present glaring discrepancy in educational opportunities if the conditions of peace are to be established and maintained, passed unanimously the following resolution:

Whereas, consistent with the resolutions unanimously adopted by the UNESCO Preparatory Commission on July 12, 1946, and in view of reports at this conference, at the meeting of the Preparatory Commission, and by UNRRA and the American Press concerning the deplorable lack of facilities for the education of youth and adults in the war-devastated countries; the destruction of school buildings, libraries, museums and laboratories; the extreme shortage of books and other basic educational supplies and materials; and the urgent need of teachers and professional assistance and counsel from the United States; and

Recognizing the vital importance to the future peace of the world of rehabilitating not only the bodies but also the minds and spirits of those who have been subjected to the horrors of war and to the miseducation imposed by ruthless conquerors;

Be it resolved that the National Commission for Educational, Cultural and Scientific Cooperation go on record as urging UNESCO to place a high priority during 1947 upon projects for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of education in those countries devastated by war, and

Be it further resolved that this Commission urge American agencies concerned with education to give serious consideration to

ways and means whereby each may cooperate with the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction in the rebuilding of educational facilities in the war-torn lands to the end that educational opportunity may be made available to all people as the right of each individual and the basis for international understanding and world peace.

The office of the Commission is located at 744 Jackson Place, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited either upon the whole of the institution or upon the faculty but specifically upon its present administration. The term "administration" includes the administrative officers and the governing board of the institution. This censure does not affect the eligibility of nonmembers for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the date of censuring are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations.

John B. Stetson University, De Land, Florida (October, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 377-399)	December, 1939
West Chester State Teachers College West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 44-72)	December, 1939
Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington (October, 1940 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 471-475)	December, 1940
Adelphi College, Garden City, New York (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 494-517)	December, 1941
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri (October, 1941 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 478-493)	December, 1941
State Teachers College, ¹ Murfreesboro, Tennessee (December, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 662-677)	May, 1943
Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina (April, 1942 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 173-176)	May, 1943
Memphis State College, Memphis, Tennessee (October, 1943 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 550-580)	April, 1944
University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri (Summer, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 278-315)	June, 1946
University of Texas, Austin, Texas (Winter, 1944 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 627-634; Autumn, 1945 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 462-465; Summer, 1946 <i>Bulletin</i> , pp. 374-385)	June, 1946

¹ Now Middle Tennessee State College.

MEMBERSHIP

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership in the Association is by the Committee on Admission of Members upon nomination by one Active Member. Election takes place thirty days after the name of the nominee has been published in the *Bulletin*. The membership year in the Association is the calendar year (January 1 through December 31). The membership of nominees whose nominations are received before July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the current year. The membership of nominees whose nominations are received after July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the following year unless the nominee requests that his membership become effective as of January 1 of the current year.

The classes and conditions of membership are as follows:

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The following 1511 nominations for Active membership and 38 nominations for Junior membership are printed as provided by the Constitution. In accordance with action by the Council, objections to any nominee may be addressed to the General Secretary, who will in turn transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members if received within thirty days after this publication. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee any question concerning the technical eligibility of the nominee for membership as provided in the Constitution.

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Juanita Demmer, Milton Dieterich, Paul S. Dull, E. G. Ebbighausen, Herman Gelhausen, Hans Heymann, Leonard L. Jermain, Paul E. Kambly, Donald J. Kimeldorf, Ramon W. Kireilis, Laurence LeSage, John M. McGee, Wayne Massey, Carlisle Moore, Norman H. Oswald, Arno L. Peiterson, Perry J. Powers, Louis E. Richter, George D. Schade, John C. Sherwood, Allan H. Smith, Helen Soehren, William J. Stevens, Frank W. Tate, William L. Winter, Charles Ziebarth; **Pennsylvania State College**, John Aston, Loyal O. Bacon, Clifford P. Bastuscheck, Thomas F. Bates, Edgar F. Benner, William M. Benson, Elizabeth H. G. Brown, William A. Bryan, Harry J. Glosser, Henry H. Gray, Leolin Hayes, Robert P. Meahl, Wyndham Miles, Verona Miller, E. F. Osborn, Leslie M. Pape, Abram Vander Meer, E. Booth Watmough, Harry D. Zook, George L. Zundel; **Pennsylvania State Teachers College (West Chester)**, Charles W. Patterson; **University of Pennsylvania**, Jane F. Andrian, J. Harold Austin, Robert K. Bishop, C. Ruth Bower, Edwin H. Burgess, J. Parker Bursk, Allan G. Chester, Chuan Chu, James C. Diggory, Mary H. Easby, Frederick H. Ehmann, William J. Ezickson, Kenneth A. Fegley, Leonard D. Frescoln, Milton M. Gordon, Walter H. Gottschalk, Alfred B. Harbage, C. Howard Harry, Jr., Donald Harter, Roy K. Heintz, Philip J. Hodes, S. Leon Israel, Clyde R. Joy, Jr., Max S. Kirch, Lester E. Klimm, Jacob D. Leebron, Anthony J. Lettiere, Ralph Lowet, W. Jack MacNeish, Walter H. Magill, Franklyn D. Miller, Fred D. Miller, Harry E. Morton, Henry M. Muller, Clarence R. O'Crowley, J. Collins Orr, Ralph Pemberton, Elizabeth K. Porter, John R. Probert, Jonathan E. Rhodes, Joseph R. Rose, J. P. Shaloo, Calvin M. Smyth, William E. Stephens, Carl Stern, Mildred L. Sylvester, Mary E. Trepte, Martin H. Wendkos, S. Culver Williams, Joseph H. Zeigerman; **Pikeville College**, Neville Strode; **University of Pittsburgh**, John R. Bickley, Elliott W. Montroll, John S. Oartel, Eleanore Reed; **Pomona College**, Joseph W. Angell, Jr., Lyman Benson, Daryl Dayton, John F. Golay, Hubert Herring, Glen A. Holland, Ralph H. Lyman, Miles D. McCarthy, Margaret Maple, Henry C. Meyer, Robert M. Muir, Benjamin D. Scott; **Purdue University**, Philip J. Elving; **Queens College (New York)**, Josephine Pisani; **University of Redlands**, Arthur G. Hoff; **Rhode Island State College**, Vernon I. Cheadle, Forrest L. Van Hooser; **University of Rochester**, Ruth M. Adams, Elizabeth A. Anderson, Julius Ashkin, Frederick Bagemihl, William F. Bale, Wayne Barlow, John A. Benjamin, Babette I. Brown, John B. Christopher, William H. Clark, Jr., Blair R. Cosman, William E. Diez, Hellmut G. Dirks, Andrew H. Dowdy, George L. Engel, Pamela R. Fahrer, Herman H. Genhart, Cecile S. Genhart, Harold Gleason, Philip H. Goepf II, Wallace R. Gray, Johannes Holtfreter, K. Ward Hooker, Robert E. Hopkins, John B. Hursh, John W. Karr, E. Henry Keutmann, Earl L. Koos, William S. Larson, Arthur J. Lohwater, William S. McCann, Augusta B. McCoord, Allison MacKown, Marjorie MacKown, George MacNabb, Ward S. Miller, Edmund S. Nasset, Enrique Noble, Edward P. Offutt, William R. Orwen, Frederick W. Paul, George H. Ramsey, Betsy Ross, Aser Rothstein, Wladimir Seidel, Frank P. Smith, Gustave Soderlund, S. D.

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Lester F. Zimmerman; **Union College (New York)**, Joseph Finkelstein, C. Stanley Urban, John C. Warren; **Utah State Agricultural College**, Carl Frischknecht, Vaughn L. Hall, Leonard H. Pollard; **Vanderbilt University**, Charles M. Lancaster, Robert F. Winch; **Virginia Polytechnic Institute**, Ernest V. Bowman, Landon E. Fuller, Edward F. Furtzsch, James L. Hammer, Edward L. Hill, Dayton M. Kohler, Percy H. McGauhey, Paul Mann, Robert E. Mather, J. P. Milhous, Fred C. Morris, Markham L. Peacock, Jr., James A. Rives, Charles E. Sears, Jr., Leland B. Tate, Mildred T. Tate, Tench F. Tilghman, Pasquale M. Torraca, James L. W. West, Jr.; **Virginia State College**, Harry W. Roberts, James R. Thomas; **Virginia State Teachers College**, Emily L. Clark, Margaret G. Finch, Lillian M. Seaberg; **Virginia Union University**, Robert Johnson; **University of Virginia**, Franz K. Mohr, Wilbur A. Nelson, Edward Younger; **University of Virginia (Mary Washington College)**, Warren G. Keith, Frances P. Mooney; **Western Washington College of Education**, Keith A. Murray, Miriam L. Peck, Morton J. Renshaw, Clarence L. Schuske; **State College of Washington**, Donald D. Johnson; **University of Washington**, Weston Blaser, Jean E. Boyle, Clarence E. Douglass, Robert L. Fernald, Vernon R. Frost, Lance E. Gowen, Ellen H. Waters; **Wayne University**, Robert M. Biggs, Chester H. Cable, J. Benton Gillingham, Everett M. Hankins, Samuel D. Jacobson, Harry H. Josselson, Earl C. Kelley, Harry M. Langsford, Lyda E. McHenry, Ruth L. Murray, Rudolf J. Noer, Walter H. Seegers, Russell E. Smith, Sheridan Teal, Jean H. Voorhies; **Wellesley College**, Sylvia L. Berkman, Mary D. Curran; **Wesleyan University**, Ellis B. Kohs, John H. Reedy, Jr.; **West Virginia University**, William D. Barnes, William S. Minor, Peter D. Shilland, Albert L. Sturm, Mary E. Wattles; **Western Reserve University**, Sarah F. Barrow, Constance M. McCullough, Eugene L. Pace, Pauline Steiner; **Wheaton College (Massachusetts)**, Frances M. Burlingame, Walter J. Nickerson, Elisabeth Papineau, Nicholas P. Vakar; **Whitman College**, Frank L. Haigh, James H. Reese; **University of Wichita**, N. Henry Pronko, Fern E. Wrestler; **Willamette University**, Walter W. Argow, Frank E. Fisher, Bennett R. Ludden; **University of Wisconsin**, George C. Allez, Mary R. Babcock, Edith Bangham, Ray L. Berger, Carl M. Bögholt, Philip P. Cohen, Margaret M. Cooper, Scott M. Cutlip, Marie Davis, John E. Dietrich, Douglas W. Dunlop, Dorothy C. Dwelle, Mary M. Elioplos, Miriam Engelland, Robert J. Francis, Martin S. Friberg, Arch C. Gerlach, J. Sullivan Gibson, Charles D. Goff, Ralph R. Goodwin, James G. Halpin, Ralph J. Harker, Mary L. Hickey, Elisabeth K. Holmes, Eleanor M. Larsen, Laura H. Loetscher, Fred Logan, Hilmar F. Luckhardt, Albert E. May, Russell L. Moberly, Robert Monschein, Edward J. Morgan, Paul Nestlbichler, Bernice Orchard, Carl O. Paulson, Bernard P. Porzak, Helen E. Punke, Clarence E. Ragsdale, Gerard A. Rohlich, Rachel K. Schenk, John Schmid, Jr., David C. Sheldon, Ray J. Stanley, Henry S. Sterling, Gertrude K. Stoessel, Theodore L. Torgerson, Reino Virtanen, Eldon D. Warner, John Willard, Joe B. Wilson, Lillian B. Zarling, Olga S. Zingale.

Junior

Arizona State College (Flagstaff), Lloyd M. Munsil; University of Cincinnati, Arthur Beyer; Concord College, Virginia H. Fanning; Cornell University, Wallace E. Barnes, Philip F. Bonhag, George E. Bowden, Mary P. Dolciani, Frederick H. Gerber, Ernest P. Gray, Joseph R. Holzinger, Charles M. Larsen, Walter L. Murdock, Murray Rosenblatt, Leila R. Rubashkin, Elizabeth B. Terwilliger, Arthur R. Williams; University of Denver, William H. Meckling, J. F. Ringler; University of Florida, George H. Pournelle; Georgetown University, Edward F. Stauber; University of Maryland, June Thearle; University of Michigan, John V. Falconieri, Loyal A. T. Gryting, Robert F. Haugh, George E. Luther, Arthur L. Scott, Edwin D. Yahiel; University of Minnesota, Ernest B. Brown, Jr., Kenneth V. Krake, Dorothy Ostergren; New York University, Janet S. Seigel; University of Pennsylvania, Douglas R. Dickson, Anthony J. Penico; University of Southern California, Francis L. Chubb, Joseph B. Hyman, L. Edward Shuck, Jr., Louis A. R. Yates; University of Virginia, C. O. Hathaway, Jr.

Members Elected

The Committee on Admission of Members announces the election of 2451 Active and 55 Junior Members as follows:

Active

University of Akron, Emile Grunberg, Richard P. Kraft, Jr.; Alabama State Teachers College (Jacksonville), J. M. Anders, Lucille Branscomb, J. E. Duncan; University of Alabama, George T. Bator, Everett L. Bishop, Jr., Carleton Butler, Mildren S. Coley, Mary L. Hinton, John W. Hoover, Vivien M. Lawson, Glenavis Martin, Ferdinand H. Mitchell, William K. Rey, Frances B. Rucks, Stephen K. Stimson, Donald E. Thompson, Longino A. Woodman; University of Alaska, Eskil Anderson, J. Dean Arbogast, Jesse T. Bell, Druska C. Carr, Nelson I. Fooks, Claude C. Hampshire, Frances Jensen, Genevieve Norfolk, Richard C. Ragle, Karl J. Swanson, Fred W. Wagner; Allegheny College, William C. Hanson; American University, Huberto Rohden, Peter P. Stapay; Amherst College, Leroy J. Benoit; Arizona State College (Flagstaff), James S. Diemer, Sue Keller, Mary W. MacAllister, Zita E. Pecenka, Ernest R. Shortridge, Jr., Fred M. Tonge, Mary C. Waugh; Arizona State College (Tempe), Dona B. Burke, Frances Cassity, Madoc W. Davies, John Girdler, Norvin L. Landskov, Robert B. Lyon, Roy C. Rice, Warren L. Strausbaugh, Katharine C. Turner, Minnie S. Wells, Howard Woolum, George C. Yates, John E. Zimmerman; University of Arizona, Herman E. Bateman, Albert W. Bork, Elmer J. Brown, Andrew Buchhauser, Robert A. Darrow, James H. Doehler, Bruce F. Hannah, Jr., Emil W. Haury, Mildred R. Jensen, Mildred E. Jones, Paul Kelso, Betty Leddy, Dorothy I. Marquart, Peter R. Marroney, Douglas D. Martin, Robert L. Matlock, Robert M. Quinn, Nathalie F. Sampson, Edmund Schulman, Millard G. Seeley, Robert A. Sencer, Ole A. Simley, Luke M.

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S. Cottrell White, Arthur Y. Winters; **Stowe Teachers College**, Elbert L. Tatum; **Susquehanna University**, Lenora Allison, Russell W. Gilbert, Robert F. W. Meader, Kenneth B. Waterbury; **Syracuse University**, Maurice W. Almfeldt, Linnea Anderson, Verne S. Atwater, Andrew Barta, Donald Botteron, Lauren F. Brush, Benjamin P. Burt, James L. Campbell, Robert E. Chambers, Dorothea Chandler, Arthur Claydon, Evelyn M. Cox, Bruce R. Gordon, Gerald F. Grillo, Henry J. Groen, Frank A. Kanda, Robert F. Koretz, Ferdinando D. Maurino, Howard G. Murphy, Joseph H. Murphy, Ellen F. Murray, John E. Parker, Jr., Orval Perry, Luis Ramirez-Melendez, Joseph A. Romig, Harry Schwartz, Frieda A. Sloop, David B. Stout, Carl A. Troester, Helen E. Underwood, Frances M. Wright; **Temple University**, Eugene C. Alder, Valborg Anderson, Edward Baron, Harold E. Bates, W. Roy Buckwalter, Helen Byse, Ernest C. Casale, Florence Evans, George V. Fagan, V. Cabell Flanagan, Prudence Fleming, Harold M. Haas, Harold P. Lazarus, Archibald McKinlay, Ward L. Miner, Jane M. Payne, May D. Riely, John B. Roberts, Jonathan T. Rorer, Raphael Sabatini; **Middle Tennessee State College**, Edward B. Baldwin, Samuel C. Evins, Otis L. Freeman, Charles E. Lawrence, Elwin W. Midgett, E. May Saunders, Carlton C. Sims, Eugene H. Sloan; **University of Tennessee**, Robert Avrett, Jeannette Biggs, Lester S. Bucher, William H. Jesse, E. O. Milton, Jr.; **Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas**, Vernon C. Batterson, E. Truett Book, Ben B. Boriskie, Homer H. Bradley II, R. C. Childs, David F. Cope, Deiro M. Desmond, A. A. Dunlap, A. G. Edmonds, C. K. Esten, J. F. Fudge, Luther H. Gray, Lauro Gutierrez-Vela, Charles K. Hancock, Harrison E. Hierth, Jack T. Kent, S. A. Lynch, Hubert C. Mohr, Bernard J. Mosele, William G. Rowland, James B. Spear, Jr., Thomas L. Watson, Paul Wischkaemper; **Texas College of Mines and Metallurgy**, Jesse A. Hancock, Jr.; **Texas State College for Women**, Ruth Douglass; **Texas Technological College**, Hugh A. Anderson, Lucy R. Bibb, James W. Day, Mary A. Duke, Martha Graves, John E. Harding, Margaret M. Henderson, Vivian Johnson, Sabe M. Kennedy, Jr., Sam Leifeste, Ivan L. Little, Raymond D. Mack, Fredis L. Mize, William M. Pearce, John Penick, Annie N. Rowland, Ethel K. Terrell, Mary G. Wilson; **University of Texas**, Sidney Cox; **University of Toledo**, Anne V. Adler, Pericle A. Chieri, W. Asquith Howe, Florence E. Kerr, Charles J. Kirschner, Lloyd B. Lapp, Marshall J. Lipman, Lois L. Martin, Martin Scholten, Carl L. Wilson, Margaret Zaugg; **Trinity College (Connecticut)**, Laurence L. Barber, Jr., John E. Candelet, Quintin P. Cole, Alvin Glassner, Walter D. Knight, Jr., Louis C. LaBrecque, Sven Nilson, C. Stanley Ogilvy, Feodor Theilheimer, Randall W. Tucker; **Tufts College**, Stanley S. Ballard, Alberta Gilinsky; **Tulane University**, Clarence E. Glick, John D. Husband, Victor R. B. Oelschlager, Dale Pontius; **University of Tulsa**, Harriet G. Barclay, Francis H. Bryant, William A. Settle, Jr.; **Union College (New York)**, James J. Anderson, Charles V. Brown, Silas P. Jones, John P. Lewis, Walter W. Lewis, Martin Little, William M. Murphy, Edward F. Ormsby, S. Perry Schlesinger, Henry J. Swanker, Charles D. Watland, Adolph D. Weinberger; **United States**

Naval Academy, Norman R. Beers, Newton W. Buerger, Jesse G. Chaney, W. Randolph Church, Wendell M. Coates, Fred L. Coonan, William P. Cunningham, William D. Duthie, Austin R. Frey, Ernest K. Gatcombe, Joseph Giarratana, G. Robert Giet, Charles A. Gregory, Wayne W. Gutzman, George J. Haltiner, Daniel W. Healy, Jr., Carl Hering, George J. Higgins, James B. Kelley, Gilbert F. Kinney, Lawrence E. Kinsler, George H. Lee, Henry F. Maling, Jr., George D. Marshall, Jr., Carl E. Menneken, Robert L. Miller, Orval H. Polk, Roy W. Prowell, Charles H. Rawlins, Melvin Reynolds, John DeW. Riggins, Eugene K. Ritter, Abraham Sheingold, Ludolph F. Welanetz, Richard C. H. Wheeler, Robert D. Wilson; **Utah State Agricultural College**, Joe Elich, J. Whitney Floyd, Edward L. France, D. A. Greenwood, Gladys Harrison, Ernest C. Jeppsen, Lewis W. Jones, George F. Knowlton, Laval S. Morris, Earnest M. Morrison, Mary Nelson, Lee Grande Noble, R. W. Roskelley, Heber C. Sharp, Kenneth R. Stevens, Aldyth Thain; **Vassar College**, L. Joseph Stone; **University of Vermont**, Robert S. Babcock, Donald C. Gregg, Benjamin F. Ladd, Joseph E. Ledden, Edwin C. Schneider; **Villanova College**, William J. Walsh; **Medical College of Virginia**, Randolph H. Hoge; **Virginia Polytechnic Institute**, Alma Capen, Clarence F. Genter, Paul T. Norton, Jr., Wilbert Schaal, T. Jackson Smith, William L. Threlkeld; **Virginia Polytechnic Institute (Radford College)**, Mattie K. Keeter; **University of Virginia**, Horton H. Hobbs, Jr.; **University of Virginia (Mary Washington College)**, C. Clay Adams, Charles H. Davidson; **Washburn Municipal University**, Elizabeth B. Culver; **Washington College**, Eloise R. Godfrey, Earle LeBaron, C. Everett Rhodes; **Central Washington College of Education**, Margaret E. Ankeney, Donald Bartleman, Hazel Brain, Sidnie Davies, Arnold Faust, H. Irene Hallberg, Dennis G. Hannan, Anita Howarth Stanley S. Linton, John E. Londahl, Harold R. McArthur, Ruby McInnis, Margaret A. Miller, Marjorie Mundt, Ethel Niergarth, Evelyn Piper; **Eastern Washington College of Education**, Raymond F. Bell; **Western Washington College of Education**, Declan F. Barron, J. Alan Ross; **Washington and Jefferson College**, Edward R. Weston; **Washington and Lee University**, John E. Husted; **State College of Washington**, Wilmer Baer, S. Judson Crandell, Gertrude Kay, Louis W. Sandine; **University of Washington**, Arthur G. Anderson, Jr., Raymond E. Bassett, Maud L. Beal, R. Frederick Becker, Donna M. Berry, Winfred W. Bird, Edward E. Bostetter, Charles E. Bowerman, Stanley H. Brewer, Malcolm J. Brown, Harriet Cross, Howard C. Douglas, Oscar E. Draper, Donald E. Emerson, Lucille C. Enquist, Eleanor Evans, Louis Fischer, Ronald Geballe, Robert L. Gitler, Homer E. Gregory, Norman W. Gregory, Manzer J. Griswold, Elizabeth Gunn, Earl C. Hald, Frank Hamack, Arthur P. Herrman, Frederic W. Hile, Andrew R. Hilen, Jr., Ruth A. Inglis, Evalyn Kanoff, Arden R. King, Wade Kniseley, Howard H. Martin, Walter T. Martin, Abraham Melden, Aubrey W. Naylor, Seth H. Neddermeyer, Vadim Pahn, Lillian B. Patterson, Orville L. Pence, Lionel H. Pries, Grant H. Redford, Carroll E. Reed, Fred H. Rhodes, Jr., Eilene Risehari, Julius Roller, Llewellyn Sanderman, Fred H. Schmidt, John C. Sherman, Victorian

Sivertz, Arthur F. Smullyan, Charlotte F. Wagner, Eleanora M. Wesner, Frank B. West, Katherine Westphal, Joseph E. Williams; **Wayne University**, Albert L. Abbott, John M. Dorsey, James P. McCormick, Donald MacDonald, Gordon B. Ray, Etta Soiref, Thomas H. Southard; **Wellesley College**, Merton M. Sealts, Jr.; **Wesleyan University**, John W. Abrams, Stephen K. Bailey, Ernest W. Caspari, George N. Conklin, Ralph E. Digman, Thomas Henney, Joseph D. Phillips; **West Virginia University** James P. Brawner; **West Virginia Wesleyan College**, Hans Tischler; **Western College**, Patricia Collins, Gail James, Lois E. Langland, John W. Long, Jr., Edna D. Parks, Ruth B. Wittig; **Western Reserve University**, Ralph Dannley, Frederick P. Harris, Clifford R. Keizer, Ralph B. Thompson; **Wheaton College (Massachusetts)**, Rosalea A. Schonbar, Ruth C. Silva; **Wheelock College**, Lyle Ring; **Whitman College**, William H. Bailey, Egon E. Bergel, Robert Comegys, Jerry J. Fogarty, Frederick Hunter, Ruth McGeehan, Lloyd R. Newcomer, William O. Pugh, Paule Ravasse, James G. Sheldon, Ronald V. Sires, S. Kirson Weinberg; **University of Wichita**, J. Robert Berg, Alma Eikerman; **Wilberforce University**, Vincent Byas; **Willamette University**, Norman Huffman; **College of William and Mary**, J. T. Baldwin, Jr., Sydney C. Rome, George B. Rossbach, **College of William and Mary (Norfolk Division)**, William M. Beck, Reuben Cooper, Natalie Disbrow, Colleen Grimm, Edith E. Hill, Percy H. Hill, Jr., Edward T. Hodges, Ernest W. Hollows, Ralph E. Ladd, Jr., R. Ross Lamoreaux, William I. Marable, Stanley Pliska, John B. Shipp, Jr., James H. Wahab; **Williams College**, Harry H. Hubbell, Jr.; **Wilson College**, Charlotte I. Damerel; **Wisconsin State Teachers College (Eau Claire)**, Lillian Bahr, Lester Emans, Lyla D. Flagler, Robert Gantner, Eugene R. McPhee, John R. Menard, Vine Miller; **Wisconsin State Teachers College (La Crosse)**, Robert L. Frederick, Ernest Gershon, Esther Merchant, Wilma J. Stevenson; **University of Wisconsin**, Hazel S. Alberson, Marjorie B. Atwell, Henry H. Bakken, William T. Bandy, Henry Barschall, William W. Beeman, Paul Bender, Jacob Beuscher, Nellie M. Bilstad, Werner W. Boehm, Frederick H. Burkhardt, Louis W. Busse, Norman A. Cameron, Harry H. Clark, Helen I. Clarke, Leland A. Coon, George A. Dietrich, H. B. Doke, James S. Earley, Konrad E. Ebisch, Mark Eccles, Donald R. Fellows, John D. Ferry, Robert Foss, Rudolph K. Froker, Robert W. Fulton, Erwin A. Gaumnitz, Alfred L. Guasewitz, Bruce Granger, Fuller O. Griffith, Jr., Oskar Hagen, Lester L. Hawkes, M. Leslie Holt, George T. Hunter, Robert Hurtgen, Dorothy L. Hussemann, Ruben Imm, Gladys S. Jerome, Stuve A. M. Johnson, William S. Johnson, Martin Joos, Louis Kaplan, Charles V. Kappen, John F. Kienitz, William D. Knight, Salmon A. Koff, Harold E. Kubly, Agnes Leindorff, André Lévêque, Clifford Liddle, Joseph D. Livermore, William F. Lorenz, Martha Loss, Camilla M. Low, W. H. McGibbon, Paul L. MacKendrick, Meryl Miles, Banner B. Morgan, George W. Murphy, Phillip S. Myers, Lois G. Nemec, M. Starr Nichols, Carroll F. Oakley, Clarence W. Olmstead, Raymond J. Penn, Margaret Peterson, Gaines Post, Robert L. Reynolds, Edward P. Roemer, Renato Rosaldo, Reed A. Rose, Charles V. Seastone, Alfred Sessler.

Francis Shoemaker, Maurice M. Shudofsky, Louis B. Slichter, Henry L. Smith, Robert C. Stauffer, F. M. Strong, Edward Taube, Arthur H. Uhl, Arthur Vierthaler, Hsi Wang, James S. Watrous, John C. Weber, Max L. White, Pearl C. Whitehead, Frederick R. Whitesell, Alfred L. Wilds, J. W. Williams Santos Zingale; **University of Wyoming**, Wallace R. Biggs, Carolyn DeClark, Gertrude Gould, Catherine Grady, Max M. Levin, Werner A. Mueller, William H. Nelle, Louise Thouin; **Yankton College**, Clark Harshfield.

Transfers from Junior to Active

Adams State College, Gilbert R. Dale; **University of Tennessee**, J. Clark Rhodes.

Junior

Baylor University, Frances Burrage, Virginia Kemp; **Boston University**, Gertrude Houser, Arthur K. Littlefield; **Bowling Green State University**, John M. Joseph, Grace L. Steiner; **Colgate University**, Richard Barker; **Grinnell College**, Alice Eversole; **Harvard University**, Allen R. Clark; **Indiana University**, Charles Billiard, F. Allen Briggs, Garland A. Haas, Ross M. Jewell, Irwin R. Messinger, Grace Thomson; **State University of Iowa**, Philip Bezanson, Lawrence Dennis, Robert E. Goostree, Nat Herz, Leon C. Karel, Gale Richards, Russell M. Ross, Carl Leiden, James C. Lien, David Scott; **University of Kansas**, Howard A. Book, H. Leon Bradlow; **University of Kentucky**, John P. Frank; **Louisiana State University**, Eugene C. Nunnally; **University of Maryland**, Kathryn M. Young; **University of Michigan**, Daniel Angsberger, Lester Beberfall, Francis A. Brown, Gordon L. Hallman, Donald MacQueen, Mary Needham, Stanley K. Norton, Peter A. Ostafin, Anthony M. Pasquariello, James Robertson; **University of New Mexico**, Philip J. Granato; **University of Notre Dame**, George D. Hollenhorst; **Skidmore College**, Lois Seigny; **University of Southern California**, Mary E. Brown, Joseph P. Canavan, Ephraim H. Catsiff, Claude Chidamian, Howard E. Root, Cornelius Steelink; **Stanford University**, Esther B. Ayers, Edward H. Brooks; **University of Toledo**, Robert J. Burns, Jr.; **Not in Accredited Institutional Connection**, David H. Corkran (Graduate Student, Columbia University), Black Mountain, N. C.; Enrique Lugo-Silva (M.A., West Virginia University), Rio Piedras, P. R.; Frank E. Wentz (Graduate Student, Texas Technological College), Big Spring, Texas.

Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

To assist in the placement of college and university teachers the American Association of University Professors publishes notices of academic vacancies and of teachers available. It is optional with appointing officers and teachers to publish names and addresses or to use key numbers.

Letters in reference to announcements published under key numbers should be sent to the Association's central office for forwarding to the persons concerned. Address in care of the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1155 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Vacancies Reported

Accounting, Business Administration, Chemistry, Physical Sciences, Pharmacy, Law: Small university, Southern California, developing new campus; prospective 1500 students fall term. Teachers and department heads. Salary range, \$3400 to \$6000, 9 months' year. Summer quarter additional. Also wanted administrative officers, salary dependent upon experience and general qualifications. V 1226

Biology: Man, Lutheran preferred. Ph.D. degree desired, but M.S. degree plus experience will be considered. Would be expected to teach General Biology, Bacteriology, Zoology, and Comparative Anatomy or Botany. Co-educational four-year college, related to Lutheran church, accredited by North Central Association, located in the central west. Salary determined by training and experience. V 1227

Biology, Zoology or Physiology (courses in General Physiology or Anatomy): Assistant Professorship, excellent chance for advancement in salary and rank, good research facilities, located in south central state, \$3600-\$3800. V 1231

Chemistry: Man, preferably Lutheran. Ph.D. degree or equivalent. To teach General, Organic, and Physical Chemistry; direct Department of Physics. Fine community, four-year general college, related to Lutheran church, fully accredited. Salary contingent upon preparation and experience. V1228

Chemistry, Physics, Biology, Engineering, English and German: Southwestern junior college. Doctor's degree preferred, Master's degree plus 24 hours of education and psychology required. Salaries: Master's degree, \$3968; Doctor's degree and 5 years' experience, \$4168. V 1229

Mathematics: Instructorship. Send application to Chairman of the Physical Science and Mathematics Department, Santa Barbara College, Santa Barbara, California.

Social agency concerned with discrimination in higher education seeks services of person qualified to study the problem and devise and pursue remedies. Exceptional opportunity for man of ability and vision who has genuine interest in subject. Applicants should supply full statement of education, experience, and other relevant factors, including minimum salary acceptable. V 1230

Teachers Available

- Administration:** Captain, U. S. Navy, on active duty, desires to retire voluntarily and enter teaching profession, preferably in college administrative work or in history field. Age 45. B.S., Naval Academy. M.S., University of California, in Mechanical Engineering. 2½ years' teaching experience at U. S. Navy Postgraduate School. Graduate of Naval War College and Army and Navy Staff College. Excellent service reputation and war record. Minimum salary, \$5000. A 2707
- Art:** Experienced teacher of history of art and architecture, methods of teaching art, and studio classes in fine and applied art; incidental experience in lecturing and writing; participation in art museum radio program. A.B. degree with equivalent of M.A. degree in graduate work (University of Colorado, New York, Baltimore and Washington art schools). Travel in Europe, Canada, Bermuda, and extensively in this country; greatly interested in South American, Indian, and regional American art expressions. (Can teach French.) Prefer opportunity to build up new art department in progressive college or university. Experienced in all media. Salary \$4000 or \$2500 plus maintenance, school year. Available immediately. A 2708
- Art: (Applied Art, Art Education, Fine Arts, Related Arts):** 3 university diplomas, U.S.A.; 2 certificates for European study. Exceptional preparation; lectured, exhibited, taught all levels. Excellent references for experience. Listed for 1948 Who's Who in American Education; make friends easily. Expect good title, good salary, good living conditions; present rank associate professor. Single and American-born citizen; Protestant. A 2709
- Bacteriology (Public Health, Physiology, Viruses):** Man, 37, married. Ph.D. Fellow Johns Hopkins. Who's Who in American Education and Men of Science. 12 years' teaching experience. War service appointment, biologicals. Former associate professor. Now industrial consultant on Foods, Drugs, and Waters. Biological, chemical, physical background. F.A.P.H.A., Sigma Xi, A.A.A.S., A.A.U.P., Society of Bacteriologists. Research. Advanced permanent position considered in a teaching institution. A 2710
- Business Administration, Business Education:** Man, 42, married. B.S., M.A., J.D. Member of New York and Federal Bars. Subjects: accounting, business law, business mathematics, insurance, real estate, business organization and management, personal finance, consumer economics, methods of teaching business subjects. Rich teaching experience at secondary, adult education, and college levels. Unique combination of cultural background and practical experience in business and the law. Member of many professional organizations. Author of more than 15 articles. Advisory editor of professional journal. Listed in prominent biographical directory. Presently well established in an accredited college as assistant professor but seeks broader opportunity. East preferred. Excellent credentials as to teaching personality and ability. Available September, 1947 or September, 1948 and summers. A 2711
- Chemistry:** Teaching position wanted in general or organic chemistry, preferably in connection with laboratory work, by recent Ph.D., single, with 3 years of college teaching experience and excellent references. A 2712
- Chemistry:** Man. Ph.D., 1937. 7 years' college teaching experience, 2 years' industrial research. Analytical chemist, also inorganic, some organic and physical chemistry. Special interests: infrared spectrometry and other methods of analysis, rarer elements. Publications. Professional and honorary societies. Desire to return to teaching. A 2713
- Eastern European History, Political Science, Research (also qualified to teach German, Hungarian, Czech, and Slovak):** Man, 36, married, 3 children. Counselor

of the Hungarian Legation in Washington since January, 1946; refused to recognize the new Communist-controlled Government. Desires position in a university, college, or research institute. Doctor of laws and political sciences from Charles University in Prague. Studied in Budapest, Hungary; Dresden, Germany; Rome, Italy; Besancon and Paris, France; London, England; specializing in nationality laws and Eastern European history. Appointed lecturer Privat Dozent on Eastern European history at Budapest University. Foreign editor and prominent newspaper columnist before entering diplomatic service. Published 3 books on Eastern European problems. Knowledge of languages as follows: English, French, German, Hungarian, Czech, and Slovak, some Russian, Polish, and Italian. A 2715

Economics, International Relations: Man, 41, married, 1 child. Ph.D. 8 years of successful teaching and research in leading universities; economics, sociology, and area courses. Residence and extensive travel in Europe and in the Far East. Foreign language, too, in general and adult education. Wife also Ph.D. Excellent references. Available September, 1947. A 2714

Economist: At present assistant professor at eastern university; teaching experience in economic principles, theory, economic policy, labor economics, and history of economic thought; extensive government and research experience; desires part-time or evening school teaching in New York City or vicinity. A 2716

Education and Psychology: 14 years' teaching economics and related fields of industrial relations and management as associate professor, full professor, and division head. Author texts, articles, broadcasts in business administration, personnel management, economics. Extensive government and private industry employment in same areas. Prefer East or South. A 2717

English: Man, 36, married, 3 children. Ph.D. Teaching experience: 3 years in junior college, 9 years in two large Eastern universities. Special interests: American literature, modern poetry, the novel, literary criticism, semantics, and the relationship of literature to philosophy, art, and psychology. Desires courses on junior-senior level and opportunity for advancement. Prefers Northeastern states. Available September, 1947. A 2718

English: Man, 36, married. Ph.D. ΦBK, productive scholar, teaching ability proved by 8 years' experience; assistant professor university, seeks associate professorship university. A 2719

English and American Literature Survey, Advanced Composition Courses: Woman, Ph.D. Two years' woman's college, 7 years' university teaching. East or Midwest. Publications. Now working on biography in American literature. A 2720

English and Literature: Modern instructor, 2 graduate degrees, 10 years' teaching experience, wants college position in U. S. or abroad. A 2721

English and/or Comparative Literature and/or General Humanities, particularly Western Literature, Art and Civilization, Classical and Romance languages and literature: Undergraduates or graduate teaching and/or administration, especially student guidance and coordination of curriculum. Vassar, Wellesley, Harvard background. M.A., Ph.D., Phi Beta Kappa. European and American fellowships and travel. Wide and successful college and university teaching and administrative experience. Publications. Research. Lectures. Excellent reference. Location desired: New York City or suburbs. A 2740

French, German: Mature woman. A.M. in German, Ph.D. in French, European diploma. Now head of modern language department in small college, wishes decently paid position in the East for about 3 years. Publications. A 2722

History: Captain, U. S. Navy, on active duty, desires to retire voluntarily and enter

- teaching profession, preferably in field of history or in college administrative work. Has thorough knowledge of military and naval history of late war. Age, 45. B.S., Naval Academy. M.S., University of California, in mechanical engineering. Two and one-half years' teaching experience at U. S. Navy Postgraduate School. Some experience in historical research and writing. Graduate of Naval War College and Army and Navy Staff College. Excellent service reputation and war record. Minimum salary, \$5,000. A 2723
- History or Geography: Man, 49, 2 children. Ph.D. Present position: Department of State, research in boundary problems. Eighteen years' teaching experience. More than 20 publications. Eight foreign languages. Travels in Europe, Middle East, Arctic. A 2724
- History and Political Science: Woman. Doctorate in political science in September, 1947. Western European history and government: specialized in French Renaissance and modern history and government; comparative Constitutional history and government. Recently returned from France; extensive European background and travel; government experience. Available September, 1947 for position in East. \$3000. A 2725
- Modern Languages (German, French, Spanish Languages and Literature): Woman. M.A., New York University; Ph.D., University of Vienna. Additional postgraduate work at the University of Paris and Spanish School, Middlebury College. Teaching experience in France, Austria, England, and the United States. Publications. Now instructor in languages in an eastern university. Desires position, preferably assistant professorship with facilities for research in comparative literature in university or college in the East. Available summer or September, 1947. A 2726
- Modern Languages, Comparative Linguistics and Literature: Woman, Ph.D., studied in European and American universities, including recent visiting scholarships at Yale and Columbia. 13 years' college teaching experience as professor of German, published, travelled. Present position, specialized research in government agency. Would be interested in suitable teaching position. A 2727
- Modern Languages: Woman, Ph.D. French and Spanish. Two research fellowships. Now head of department in small college. Wishes to move to institution in or near city. Will take headship of department in small institution or assistant or associate professorship in larger institution. A 2728
- Music: Man, 41, married. Mus. M. Yale; violinist, composer, conductor; awarded many prizes, two European Fellowships; at present conductor of symphony orchestra and head of violin department; much concert and chamber music experience; 15 years' successful university and college teaching. Desires full professorship. Salary \$5000. A 2729
- Music: Architectural Engineer with M.S. degree, age 39, wishes to become instructor of harmony, counterpoint and related subjects. Graduate N.E. Conservatory (Composition). Church organist 19 years. Carl Howard, 122 Powder House Blvd., West Somerville 44, Massachusetts.
- Oriental History and Humanities: Man, 46, Ph.D.; Area studies Near East, Old Testament archeology, Biblical literature, general studies; undergraduate or graduate; accustomed to academic responsibility. Desires East between Washington and Boston. A 2739
- Philosophy: Man, 37, married, child. Ph.D., Toronto. Student of Gilson and Maritain. Religion, Catholic. Main interest: Thomistic philosophy. Four years' college teaching experience. Present rank: assistant professor. Eastern college or university preferred. A 2730
- Philosophy, Classical Languages, Humanities, Vocational Guidance: Man, 42,

- married. Ph.D. Three years' graduate European study. College and university teaching since 1934. Also administrative duties since 1942. A 2731
- Political Science—History: Man, 43, married. Ph.D., 14 years' teaching experience in U. S., Latin-America, and Europe. Personally acquainted with many leading European and Latin-American statesmen and political figures. Lecturer and delegate to Pan-American Congress at Buenos Aires. Fields: National Government, State Government, Foreign Relations, Medieval History, Modern European History, Latin-American History. Writings: one book, numerous magazine articles and professional publications. Head college department. Now available. A 2732
- Psychology: Mature man, Ph.D., Fellow A.A.A.S. Experienced college and university professor, counselor, and administrator. A 2733
- Russian, German: Woman, single, European degrees. Taught Russian in many outstanding American universities; other teaching experience. Desires university or college position. A 2734
- Social Science (Sociology, History, Geography): Man, 33, married, veteran. M.A., candidate Ph.D. (Sociology). Six years' teaching experience (2 years Armed Forces Institute overseas), 2 years Y.M.C.A. secretary, 1 year professional Boy Scout executive. Seeks assistant professorship, salary \$3500, Eastern United States, preferably Northeastern sector. A 2735
- Sociology and Social Psychology: Woman. Ph.D., Columbia 1934. Wide college teaching and research experience, including 2 years in Near East and 3 in Far East. Just returned from a year of social science conference work and teaching in the Army Education Program in Japan, Korea, and the Philippines. Distinguished research publications. Interested in either a full-time professorship or part-time position with opportunity for research. A 2736
- Sociology: Established reputation in several fields of theoretical and applied sociology; long experience in both graduate and undergraduate teaching, at both large and smaller institutions, also in community activities; interested in position on Pacific slope or elsewhere. A 2737
- Spanish, French: Man, Spanish by birth, of Spanish-American upbringing and background, American wife, 1 child. Master of Arts, graduate study in several American universities. 30 years' college teaching experience, including summer school and extension teaching. Desires permanent position, at a salary commensurate with long and highly successful college teaching experience. Excellent references. Available fall, 1947. A 2738

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